The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, DECEMBER 19, 1889.

The Week.

MR. CLEVELAND'S speech at Boston on Thursday was remarkable mainly for the uncompromising support which he gave to ballot reform and civil-service reform, or, in other words, to the two things for which the bad element in his party has the liveliest hatred. No one has ever stigmatized the enemies of ballot reform in stronger language. The followers of Hill can clearly expect no "concessions" in that quarter on this subject. Nothing could be better calculated than such utterances to strengthen Mr. Cleveland's hold on the new generation of voters and on men of all parties, who believe the time has at last come to provide proper bottles for the new wine. His popularity has been steadily growing ever since he left the Presidency, owing not less to the dignity and simplicity of his life in a situation of considerable difficulty and delicacy, than to the manly force and soundness of everything he says on public questions. Two little incidents of recent occurrence illustrate remarkably the growth of his popularity among classes which have long been alienated from his party, and which viewed his election in 1884 with more or less alarm. At the Chamber of Commerce dinner last month, in a gathering made up mainly of Republicans and protectionists, no one met with such enthusiastic applause as he did. More recently, at the breakfast given to Comte de Kératry by the American Copyright League, an audience of 250 literary men, or men engaged in intellectual pursuits, Mr. Cleveland's name was greeted with such prolonged and vigorous cheering that it seemed almost to put a slight by contrast on the guest and on the orators of the day. It was a tribute, in fact, such as perhaps no other American could count on from such an audience. We might go on to say that some of this growth of popular attachment Mr. Cleveland undoubtedly owes to the industry and political economy of his successor.

Gov. Hill's Albany organ, the *Argus*, makes an amusing attempt to assume that Mr. Cleveland's approval of ballot reform is not a rebuke to the Governor, but is in fact a concurrence with the latter's view. Says the *Argus*:

"Mr. Cleveland is as earnest an advocate of this great reform as is Gov. Hill. It is to be hoped that the next Legislature will not exhibit the same hostility to the reform as its predecessor. Mr. Cleveland's thoughtful, patriotic remarks should be read by every citizen who has the interests of good government at heart."

Mr. Cleveland's words have been read by thousands of such citizens, and we beg to assure the *Argus* that not one of them has failed to see that they constitute one of the most crushing rebukes to Gov. Hill which that shifty politician has ever received. It leaves him, in fact, almost entirely alone in the Democratic party in his fight against ballot reform, his only sympathizers being Tammany Hall and the forlorn ex-Butler organ in this city.

The brief speech which Mr. Cleveland made to an assemblage of Democrats at the Bay State Club in Boston, on the day following the merchants' banquet, was in its way as significant as the more formal one of the previous evening. As he was speaking to Democrats only, his words have additional weight as showing the position which he holds in his party, and the view which that party will have to adopt in following his leadership. He said:

"I want to say one word to you as Democrats about the questions of reform which are now agitating the public mind, and I don't propose to make a speech. I beg of you as Democrats not to be accused of lagging in the rear on any of those topics. The tariff reform, of course, is ours, and we don't propose to be robbed of it under any pretence whatever. All things good come to those who wait, and we are willing to wait. Let me tell you, gentlemen, that other reforms are as important, and let me tell you they should be kept abreast, and let me beg of you, so far as in you lies (although I don't believe the admonition is necessary), to see to it that the Democratic party will not be behind in any of them. We are the party of the people, and they cannot get that away from us. Let us, then, keep in mind the benefits of the people, their advantages, and their interests, and wherever we see them let us follow those, and we shall surely be right."

If the friends of Gov. Hill had any doubts about what Mr. Cleveland's preceding speech meant, so far as it applied to ballot reform, they could have none after reading this admonition to the Democratic party not to be "lagging in the rear" on any of the great reforms of the day. The party would be in the front on ballot reform, and New York would have been the first State to put such a law in practice, but for Gov. Hill.

Capt. Boutelle of the Bangor *Whig* has made a discovery about the Australian ballot system which outweighs as an objection anything that Gov. Hill has been able to invent. He says, in his own forcible and eloquent style:

"The attempt to build up some new, intricate, complicated, and but partially tested system, *invented for use among the exiled convicts of a penal colony of Great Britain*, as the absolute perfection of human wisdom, and to denounce every one who is not ready to abolish the simple, old-fashioned New England town-meeting methods, upon which our republican form of Government has stood unshaken for one hundred years of marvellous national development and prosperity, seems to us hardly less than absurd."

It is small wonder that, after bringing this charge against the system, the bold Captain should announce that "we shall decline to continue what seems a profitless discussion." It would obviously be "profitless" for a publicist of his calibre to learn that the Australian system was invented in 1858, and that the shipment of convicts to Australia ceased in 1839; that it was first put in use in South Australia, which never was a penal colony; that it was gradually extended to other divisions of Australia during the following twenty years, and that the number of convicts who have ever voted under its provisions in the whole of Australia in all probability does not equal the number who voted in Boutelle's ward in Bangor at the last election there.

It is obviously the Captain's belief that Australia is a small country, whose population consists mainly of exiled convicts and their descendants. If he will turn to an encyclopædia, he will learn that this is a mistake. He will discover that, while an island, Australia is in fact a continent, having an area nearly twenty-five times that of Great Britain and Ireland; that it is divided into five colonies, the smallest of which has an area of about 88,000 square miles, or nearly double that of the State of New York, and that the area of the other four ranges from 309,000 to 975,000 square miles each; that the total population in 1885 was nearly 3,000,000; that its revenues in that year were nearly $100,000,000, its imports $270,000,000, and its exports $217,000,000; that it had over 6,000 miles of railways and 31,000 miles of telegraph; that it had under cultivation over 6,000,000 acres of ground; that it raised 30,000,000 bushels of wheat, 5,000,000 bushels of oats, and 9,000,000 bushels of barley, maize, and other cereals; that it has six large cities—Melbourne, with nearly 300,000 population, Sydney, with 225,000, Adelaide with 70,000, and Victoria, Sandhurst, and Brisbane each with about 40,000; that there are universities in the three first-named cities, and well-equipped astronomical observatories; that all the colonies have a combined system of free and endowed schools, with a form of compulsory education which carries and enforces elementary instruction among all classes. This and much other valuable rudimentary instruction the Captain will find by consulting any competent authority.

The *American Wool Reporter*, at the request of leading merchants of Boston, has taken a census of the wool-manufacturers on the subject of free wool and ad-valorem duties, by sending to all manufacturers in the country two petitions, requesting them to sign the one which expresses their views and return it, so that it may be presented to Congress after the holiday recess. The result is somewhat surprising, 524 having signed the free-wool petition, and 196 the ad-valorem petition. "The astonishing features," says the *Wool Reporter*, "of this great list of names in favor of reduced duties on wool, lie not only in the number, but in the character of the signers. It has been many times asserted that the only manufacturers in favor of free wool were a few officers of large corporations, the number of whom did not exceed ten. Our list of signatures shows that the rank and file of smaller manufacturers are as willing to express their opinions in regard to wool duties as are the great leaders of the trade."

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Subsidies for sorghum have been almost as popular in some parts of the country as subsidies for ships. New Jersey gave them a pretty thorough trial, but abandoned the effort a year or two ago. Kansas has been paying a subsidy of one cent per pound for sugar produced from sorghum, and the local communities have been "bonding" themselves in aid of individuals and corporations who have offered to erect sugar-factories there. The eagerness to vote their own and other people's money away in this fashion has even surmounted the barriers raised by the Supreme Court against such practices, for whereas the Court decided, a long time ago, that such bonds were absolutely void, and that no tax could be levied to pay either principal or interest thereon, the device was hit upon of issuing scrip instead of bonds and then refunding the scrip into bonds—all for sorghum. As this was an underhand scheme to circumvent the law, it was natural that rogues should come forward to rake in the proceeds. It was only necessary to show a process for making a superior article of sugar out of sorghum at a low cost in order to promote the issuing of scrip, which would naturally be turned over to the sugar-makers and sold by them for what it would bring. The various methods of treating sorghum were tried, but the favorite process was roasting. Some people called it the "mush" process. You take a given quantity of sorghum stalks and reduce them to mush, then add a barrel of real sugar to the mush, mix well, and turn out a barrel and a half of sugar of a better quality than was ever produced from sorghum before. Then pocket your subsidy and go to the next county. The mush process had a remarkable run, almost as remarkable as the electric-refining process here in New York. But it could not last for ever, because eventually the swindled communities would try to make sugar for themselves, and, neglecting to add any real sugar to the mush, the output would be disappointing. From Topeka the report comes that the State Board of Agriculture has discovered the trick and has gone in pursuit of the swindlers. Is not the State Board itself to blame for encouraging the sorghum subsidies in the beginning?

The problem of the utilization of the waste lands of our arid region is one that is attracting great attention at the present time. It has been assumed that these lands can be redeemed only by means of irrigation, and immense sums have already been spent in constructing irrigation works, and many hundreds of thousands of acres of land have thus been brought under cultivation. The matter is of so great importance that it has been brought to the attention of Congress, which has recently made large appropriations for the Geological Survey for the purpose of investigating the subject. It seems that the Agricultural Department, not to be behindhand in this important matter, has also been investigating and experimenting during the past season, and, according to the newspaper statements, has already settled it out of hand. The Agricultural Department accepts no conclusions of others, but tests everything itself. So in this matter, instead of accepting the verdict of the settlers in the far West, that, as a rule, crops cannot be raised there without irrigation, it set about testing whether this verdict is true. A spot near Garden City, Kansas, having been selected as a type of the arid region, the ground was broken and pulverized, and sown in various crops. A part of this land was mulched with straw, the rest being left naked. At harvest time it was seen that the mulched land produced a good crop, while upon the unmulched land nothing matured. Hence we are informed that, throughout the length and breadth of the arid region, it is only necessary, in order to insure abundant crops, to pulverize the soil thoroughly and mulch it with straw.

It is strange that among the many thousands of settlers no one has thought of this simple expedient, an expedient so often used in the East for a similar purpose. It is, however, possible that there may be some flaw in the experimentation or the reasoning of the Department in this matter. Indeed, some person envious of this signal success might say that Garden City, which has an annual rainfall of over twenty inches, and during the last season a rainfall 50 per cent. greater than the average, can scarcely be said to be a *type* of the arid region, where the rainfall ranges from 5 to 15 inches in average seasons, and that the results have no bearing on the question. There is, however, a serious side to this business. The frontier upon the plains of Kansas and Nebraska has for the past twenty years been the scene of constant conflict between man and the forces of nature, a conflict in which man is continually and hopelessly worsted. Every wet season upon the frontier has tempted thousands to settle in this border land, whence they have been driven back by the fear of starvation in the first year of normal rainfall. For the hardships and losses of these poor would-be settlers the railroads, with their exaggerated prospectuses, are largely responsible. This is a sufficiently grave matter, but it becomes even more grave when the Department of Agriculture, which is supposed to speak with authority, advises settlement upon these desert lands, and their cultivation without irrigation. If this advice is given under official sanction, thousands of families, accepting it, will seek homes in the desert perhaps only to suffer hardship and loss, and be finally driven out by starvation.

The case of Silcott, which touches the House of Representatives on a sensitive point, and pinches so many members of that body, ought to fix the attention of Congress, and of all our executive, legislative, and judicial authorities, on the inadequate extradition arrangements which we now have with other governments, and especially with Canada. Silcott is believed to have absconded to Canada, and to be in hiding there; but even if there and discovered, can he be extradited? Under the present plan of extradition by treaty, and enumeration therein of extraditable offences, he can be obtained from Canada only in case his offence is enumerated in the treaty. If he has committed forgery, he can be extradited, but he cannot be obtained under the treaty if his offence is embezzlement or other breach of trust. Nor, under the Supreme Court decision in Rauscher's case, can he be tried for embezzlement if extradited for forgery and, on trial for that offence, the proof is insufficient to convict. Great Britain, by a learned report made in 1878, and made by a Royal Commission which included such eminent publicists, judges, diplomatists, and bankers as Chief-Justice Cockburn, the Earl of Selborne (Roundell Palmer), Judge Blackburn, Recorder Russell Gurney, Judge Baggallay, Judge Brett, Sir John Rose, Judge J. Fitzjames Stephen, and Sir William Harcourt, has distinctly said that she is weary of such technicalities. The Commission reported that it is "the common interest of mankind" that criminals, having committed offences against the general well-being of society, shall not remain at large in a foreign State into which they have fled. Even without reciprocity, England should, said the Commission, surrender such criminals to a demanding Government. The Commission also stamped out, in so far as it could, the fussy technicality that a criminal extradited for one extradition offence should not be tried by the country recovering him for another offence, not political. The whole tenor of this learned report is that, with reciprocity, Great Britain will be glad to rid herself of all malefactors and criminals who have fled to her dominions after violating our laws, and the tendency is to show that she will consent to do it even without reciprocity, and on some such plan as is the basis of the recent Canadian legislation known as the "Weldon Act." Why use treaties at all, and why not, by concerted legislation, authorize the arrest and surrender of every escaping criminal (excepting a political offender), as is now done by and between the States of our Union?

Senator Sherman has reintroduced his Federal Election Bill, in substantially the same form as a year ago. Briefly summarized, it takes the control of the election of Congressmen entirely away from the people of a State, and turns it over to canvassing and electoral boards appointed for life by the President. Of course the Northern States will not submit to such treatment. Why, then, is it proposed? Apparently for no other reason than to make it the text for bloody-shirt speeches. But this is as short-sighted from the politician's point of view as from the statesman's. So far as the South is concerned, the agitation of such propositions insures its continued solidity for the Democrats, while, instead of making the North solid for the Republicans, the readiness of Republican leaders to support such schemes renders independent voters more and more suspicious of the party. In short, it is clearly a losing game all around.

We learn from a Republican organ that "the returns of the election of Congressmen in Indiana at the last Congressional election

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show that 264,365 votes cast for Republican candidates for Congress elected only three Representatives, while 259,897 votes cast for Democratic candidates elected ten Representatives. This result," the editor says with truth, "is brought about by a most iniquitous apportionment of Congressional districts in that State by a Democratic Legislature," and he adds: "The Democratic journals in Ohio are urging the imitation of this iniquity in that State by the next Legislature." If the editor of the *Independent* had taken the trouble to consult his copy of the *Tribune Almanac*, he would have found that the apportionment of Congressional districts in Ohio by a Republican Legislature was such that, at the last Congressional election, 395,639 votes cast for Democratic candidates for Congress elected only five Representatives, while 416,520 cast for Republican candidates elected sixteen Representatives. If, therefore, the Democrats of Ohio should reapportion the State so as to elect three times as many Congressmen as the Republicans with about the same number of votes, they would only be imitating the "iniquity" of the Republicans. The *Independent* cannot denounce too severely such "iniquity," when committed by either party, but it should spare us the hypocrisy of pretending that either party is superior to the other in this matter.

The rumor has reached the hungry Republican politicians of Brooklyn for about the hundredth time that the President has decided to remove the Postmaster of that city and put a good Republican in his place. They are cheered by a similar rumor in regard to the United States Marshalship of that district. These changes would have been made long ago, in spite of the fact that in order to accomplish the first it will be necessary to remove before his term has expired the best Postmaster that the city has ever had, if the Republican politicians could have agreed upon a successor. The President is not at all troubled by his civil-service-reform pledges, but simply by a fear that he may make an appointment which will "divide the party" in Brooklyn. There are two leading candidates for the place, each of whom has strong party backing. There have been visits to Washington and conferences without limit in the hope of bringing about "harmony," and the President has devoted so much time and thought to the matter that it is small wonder he was able to give "only a hasty examination" to Mr. Windom's silver recommendations. It is a sad reflection upon the loyalty of Brooklyn Republicans that, in spite of all these Presidential exertions, they still refuse to unite upon a candidate.

The suicide of Mr. Franklin B. Gowen is one of the most shocking and unaccountable events of the year now drawing to its close. Ability, courage, and purity are great qualities in a man of affairs, and the late Mr. Gowen had them all, with the addition of a personal charm that found supporters for his largest schemes. But all this was more than neutralized by one single error of judgment. Not content to develop the Philadelphia and Reading Railroad as an instrument of transportation, not content to stake its fortunes upon its proper business under his own almost absolute management, he fell into the mistake of thinking it good policy for the railroad to own the sources of its most important branch of traffic. Adopting this idea, he persuaded his stockholders to put it into execution, and so created the mountain of debt which broke down the company, and, in spite of a successful reorganization, keeps it impoverished to this day. Other combined railroad and coal properties there were already, the railroad being generally a development of the coal interest, whatever may be thought of the wisdom of this development. But it was Mr. Gowen who conceived that it was a good thing for a railroad to buy the coal lands which should furnish it with freight. If his company could have paid for the coal lands in stock, there would have been less to say against his scheme financially; but, as bonds were the only means available for the purchase, the wildness of the scheme was pretty generally recognized. No one saw this more clearly than the owners of the lands which Mr. Gowen sought to buy; they sold at good prices, and promptly turned the bonds into cash. The example of Mr. Gowen did, however, find some imitators, though on a comparatively humble scale. The end is not yet, nor for the Reading Company alone.

The St. Paul *Pioneer-Press* thinks that whatever may be said of other countries, France has damaged her commerce by subsidies. She went into the subsidy business in 1881 on a grand scale, paying bounties for shipbuilding and also for navigation. During the nine years that the system has been in operation, the foreign trade of France has declined $202,000,000 in value, and the tonnage carried has also declined. The number of ships has, of course, increased, because building was stimulated by the bounties, but the foreign shipping in French waters has increased in an equal ratio, showing that the bounties were sheer waste. On the other hand, the French shipping that existed before the bounty law went into operation has suffered severe losses by the unnatural competition forced upon it. There is no country in which the practice of taxing the many for the benefit of a few, and calling it *la gloire nationale*, is so popular as it is in France. There is none in which the results have been so disappointing.

The number of strikes which have taken place in London since the dockmen's strike, is opening the eyes of a great many people to the inconvenience of treating all strikes as justifiable and even meritorious, provided the employer be a corporation. This was substantially the ground taken by a large part of the public in London, under the leadership of Cardinal Manning, in regard to the dockmen's strike. Nobody pretended that the dock companies could afford to pay higher wages to "casuals" than they were paying, or that they were not, all but one, on the verge of insolvency. What was said was, that it was a shame that the casual's livelihood should be so precarious, and that, as he sometimes got work from the dock companies, on them must fall the burden of improving his lot, and not on the sympathizing public. Why the stockholders, many of them very poor, should have to shoulder this responsibility, nobody ever explained. Cardinal Manning intimated that there was something unchristian in their reluctance to surrender, and the clergy of other denominations backed him up. When the strikers refrained from rioting, it was held that the case against the dock-owners was complete, and that they were morally bound to give such peaceable casuals regular employment on their own terms. The companies did accordingly compromise in such a way as to give the strikers the air of having triumphed. They have never had a quiet hour since. Their stock has depreciated $5,000,000. Repeated strikes have been ever since occurring, sometimes for one reason, sometimes for another, but always with the view of showing the power of the strikers over the employers. The same spirit has spread through the other employees of corporations in England. Doubtless they all have grievances, but the point to be noticed is, that when a strike of this kind succeeds under the leadership of a labor agitator who is not a fellow-workman of the strikers, and has no common interest with them, it is sure to be followed by a protracted attempt, or series of attempts, to take the management of the business out of the hands of the owners, and subject it to the rules and regulations of some trades-union.

At the time of the imposition of tariff taxes on agricultural products in Germany, the protectionists of that country maintained, with the usual fierce logic of their kind, that the consumer would not suffer, as there would be no enhancement of the price of the necessaries of life. In the light of those assertions the statistics given by the Munich correspondent of the *Evening Post* are of interest: "In January of this year 224 pounds of beef cost in Berlin 86.50 marks. In September it had risen to 103.40, an increase of 15 per cent. Pork had risen from 95 to 124.80, or 31.4 per cent. Veal had risen from 96.50 to 102.40, or 6.1 per cent., and mutton from 88 to 92.50, or 5.5 per cent. Compared with September, 1888, beef, pork, and veal had risen 7.7, 30, and 17.7 per cent. Mutton, owing to temporary causes, had fallen 3.3 per cent." A table recently published in the *Freisinnige Zeitung*, based upon official documents, sets forth the following list of increased prices since 1887: Wheat increased 17 per cent., barley 22 per cent., oats 43. The price of potatoes has decreased in the same period; but, unhappily for the protectionist argument, there is no tax on potatoes. Doubtless that omission will soon be made good, and potatoes be added to the number of agricultural products for which the landowners can get a higher price, but for which, in the mysterious way common to the working of protection, the consumer will have to pay no more than before.

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WHY NOT PICTURES?

In President Harrison's message occurs the following passage: "The free-list can very safely be extended by placing thereon articles that do not offer injurious competition to such domestic products as our home labor can supply." The President makes no special mention of the tariff on works of art, but this passage seems to us to cover the ground.

The fact that, in the opinion of the interested parties, works of art "do not offer injurious competition" to our "domestic products" has been demonstrated time and again. The present duty of 30 per cent. on works of art was imposed in the face of a largely signed petition of American artists for the removal of the then existing 10 per cent. duty. Later, the Union League Club circulated among the artists and art institutions of the country a petition for the abolition of the present tariff on works of art. Among two thousand answers received to their circular, *seven* favored the retention of the present duty, while 90 per cent. of the answers received favored the total abolition of the tariff on works of art. The Society of American Artists has again and again recorded its protest against the present tariff, while, more recently, the most conservative of our artistic bodies, the National Academy of Design, has taken the same stand. At the last annual meeting of the Academy the following resolution was passed: "Resolved, That the present ad-valorem duty on foreign works of art is injurious to the best interests of art in this country, and that it should be replaced by a moderate specific duty or abolished altogether."

The last phase of this singular crusade by a "protected industry" against the law intended for its protection is the forming of the National Free Art League expressly to secure the abolition of the present tariff on works of art. Its membership is steadily growing, and it now has some thousand members in all parts of the country, including many of our most prominent artists—the names of many Academicians, including the President of the Academy, are on its rolls. It is, therefore, very evident that the artists of America think that foreign works of art "do not offer injurious competition" to their own, and they have given their reason for thinking so. The circular of the National Free-Art League says: "The price of a work of art *depends upon the individual reputation of the artist*, and a cause which enhances the price of foreign works of art has no beneficial effect upon domestic production." How right is this contention may be illustrated by the following little story which appeared in the Paris *Temps* on the 22d of last August:

"A few days since, an administrator's sale was held on the second floor of the Hôtel Drouot. It was an unimportant sale, and included a few pictures among which was a little panel, thirteen centimetres wide by ten high, representing a drunken soldier at a tavern door. In the right-hand lower corner of this little picture was an M with a reversed E astride of its first leg.

"The picture was bought for about a hundred francs (*une centaine de francs*), the *commissaire priseur* having announced it simply as 'a picture without a name.' . . . It became the property of a M. S——, who immediately ceded it to a M. F——. A few days later M. F——, wishing to get rid of his acquisition, offered it to an expert in Rue Lafitte, M. Bernheim *jeune*. 'But it is a Meissonier that you have there!' said the expert. Imagine the stupefaction of M. F—— to find himself the owner of an authentic work by the painter of '1814,' knocked down for a hundred francs by a Parisian *commissaire priseur!* We asked M. Bernheim to confide the little picture to us for a few moments, and we carried it to show to the master. No doubt was left! M. Meissonier declared it to be a work by himself."

Could anything more clearly demonstrate the futility of treating art as merchandise? Could anything show more conclusively that "the price of a work of art depends upon the individual reputation of the artist"? Can any one tell what may be the present mercantile value of that Meissonier? But that value depends upon the fact that it is a Meissonier, and as such it competes only with other Meissoniers. As a *picture*, competing with other pictures, its value was—one hundred francs! Pictures, *as pictures*, have no commercial value; Meissoniers have a great commercial value, but putting a tax on a Meissonier can only raise the price of that particular picture or of others by the same hand. If we had any manufacturers of Meissoniers in the country, they might be benefited by a tariff on Meissoniers; our painters of pictures are not helped by a tariff on pictures, and they know it better than any one.

If our Republican Congress agrees with our Republican President that "the free-list can very safely be extended by placing thereon articles that do not offer injurious competition to such domestic products as our home labor can supply"; if, as we believe, Congressmen would like to reduce taxation if they knew where to do so without hurting "American industries," why should they not begin by taking off the tariff on works of art?

WHEN DOCTORS DISAGREE.

It is reported that Chairman McKinley has already taken his tariff work in hand and set his Committee on Ways and Means thinking what they had best do. They will have no lack of advisers. To begin with, here are two eminent doctors of the protectionist faith, the Boston *Commercial Bulletin* and the Philadelphia *Manufacturer*, giving contrary opinions respecting the duties on wool. The *Bulletin* of December 7 discusses the subject in its usual learned way, and finds that "the present duty on carpet wool is an absurdity" and ought to be repealed; also, that the duties on certain other fibres ought to be repealed, and that Congress ought to confound the free-traders, and take the wind out of their sails, by passing "a measure which shall remove and reduce the duties which are obviously not only excessive, but unnecessary for the protection of American labor, a direct tax upon the American people as consumers, and of no corresponding advantage to them as producers."

The *Manufacturer*, as if anticipating what the *Bulletin* was about to say, gave its opinion of the free-wool campaign in its issue of December 2. It said first, in italics, that "the manufacturers who want free wool will not get it"—meaning, we suppose, that they will not get it from the present Congress; and in this we think that it is right. The reasons why they will not get it are stated with commendable frankness. It is to be hoped that the *Bulletin* and all the petitioning manufacturers, including the carpet-makers, will lay them to heart. Here are a few sample reasons why they will not get free wool at present:

"Any man who goes before that Congress with a demand that it shall in fact repeal the wool duties, must do so in full knowledge that he is asking the majority to break all its promises, to kick the platform to pieces, and to exhibit to the nation a betrayal of public confidence and a violation of sacred trust more shameful, we believe, than any act of treachery recorded in the history of American legislation. Such an appeal is merely a recommendation to the protectionists to put the last nail in the coffin of the Republican party. It demands not only a sacrifice of honor, but of existence. It is an invitation to suicide.

". . . Removal of the wool duties means free yarns and free cloth. It means more: it means that the whole protectionist structure will come rattling down about the ears of the manufacturers of this country; not only of manufacturers of woollens, but of all kinds of commodities. The *wool schedule is the key*-stone of the arch. Take it out, and the entire fabric will tumble into ruin. The free-trader knows that fact well. It is beyond comprehension that a manufacturer of woollens does not perceive it."

The manufacturer of woollens can perhaps see as far into a millstone as anybody. He has needed to have pretty good eyesight to keep going all these years under the burden of a tariff of 55 to 75 per cent. on his raw materials. If he is now asking for the removal of these duties, and is going to fight for the same, he must have made up his mind to take all the risks and all the consequences. The Boston *Journal of Commerce*, a pretty good authority, estimates that about one-third of all the manufacturers have reached the fighting point. As to the carpet-men, probably they have all reached it, although a few are hesitating for political reasons, not liking to separate from their old friends. If the Senate tariff bill of last year, with its schedule of increased wool duties, is passed by the present Congress, not only will the carpet-men take the war-path, but a majority of all the manufacturers of woollen goods will do likewise. Such, at least, was the note sounded in the Whitman-Delano correspondence of October last.

There may be some manufacturers who would rather be ruined and sent to the poor-house than take any step which might bring harm to the Republican party. If there be any such, they are few in number. On the other hand, there are no wool-growers—at all events, none in the Wool-Growers' Association—who are afflicted with such squeamishness. They would kick the tariff to pieces with no more compunction than they would eat their breakfasts, and if the party went to pieces along with the tariff, they would not shed even a crocodile's tear. They have often said this, and there is no doubt whatever that they mean it. They are entirely frank, and as frankness is always praiseworthy, we shall not withhold our approbation. They have been in the tariff ring long enough to know that it is a sheer game of grab, and that the good of the country is

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the last thing ever considered—indeed, is the one thing never considered—by the juntos who frame the schedules of duties on this, that, and the other. "Give us our share, we being the judge of what our share is, or the fat goes into the fire," is what they say. Can they make good their threat? They are few in numbers. They do not control directly five hundred votes in Ohio. They lost votes in that State at the recent election. They lost votes in the same State last year. Yet they have the ear of the non-wool-growing farmers, and it may be that although they cannot bring any votes to the Republican party, or even hold all that they have had heretofore, they could turn away a sufficient number to change the complexion of the next Congress.

A tariff is a question of dollars and cents. It has no moral attributes whatever. These belong to freedom only. The right of each man to possess and enjoy his own earnings and to exchange the products of his labor without Governmental interference is presumptively a God-given right. The burden of proof is on the other side. Let the woolmanufacturers, or those who have made up their minds to brave all the consequences of their demand for free wool, lay this fact to heart. If their demand involves the smashing of the protective tariff, as the *Manufacturer* says, it involves nothing but the tardy restoration of rights which ought never to have been denied. Surely no great harm can come from letting each tub stand on its own bottom.

MR. CHANDLER'S DEVICE AGAINST HOME RULE.

"Bill" Chandler has brought forward his Federal election law scheme, and we observe that the Boston *Journal*, and the *Kennebec Journal*, published at Augusta, Me., endorse it as a simple, just, and effective plan for the protection of the ballot, the latter organ saying that it "cannot see why it should not be a popular measure." Let us see. The bill provides that whenever, in any Congressional district, ten voters from each county, or ten voters from each voting precinct where the Congressional district is one county or less, shall make an affidavit that they believe the election will be unfair if held by the State officers, and shall petition the United States Circuit Judge to have the registration of voters and the election conducted by United States officials, the court shall appoint commissioners—one for each party, recommended by the two candidates for Congress—who shall register the voters, and, through the appointment of inspectors and clerks, recommended by them to the court for appointment, shall control the casting and counting of the votes. In other words, if this bill becomes law, ten "cranks" in each of the four counties of Hancock, Kennebec, Somerset, and Waldo can require the election of Congressman in the Third District of Maine to be taken out of the hands of officials chosen by the people of Maine, and put in the hands of Le Baron B. Colt of Providence, R. I., Circuit Judge for the circuit which includes Maine. In like manner a few men in the northern peninsula of Michigan could transfer the control of the election of the Congressman for that district from the hands of Michigan men to those of the Circuit Judge for that circuit, Howell E. Jackson of Tennessee, a "wicked Democrat" appointed by Cleveland. It may be that such a system as this will be popular with Northern people who have for generations insisted upon controlling their own elections. We shall see when they come to understand the character of the measure.

As for the idea that any such device as this will cure the election evils at the South, it would be a waste of words to argue the point when so good a Republican organ as the Utica *Herald* has thus clearly exposed the futility of the scheme: "An objection to Senator Chandler's bill can be found easily in the provision that ten voters in every voting precinct of a Congressional district must, in order to secure Federal supervision of an election, make affidavit that they do not feel safe in voting under State regulations, or that they apprehend unfair practices. In Southern districts where voting is most dangerous, it would be as unsafe to make the required affidavits as it would to attempt to vote without Federal care. Congress has the right to insist that the ballot for members shall be free and fair, and if it is going to exercise its right, it should not substitute one danger for another." The truth is, that when the editors of the Utica *Herald*, the Kennebec *Journal*, and the Boston *Journal* have studied this subject as thoroughly as the editor of the Milwaukee *Sentinel* has done, they will have to accept the conclusion of that excellent Republican authority that the enactment of any Federal election law "would prove as ineffectual as the Pope's famous bull against the comet." Valuable testimony to the ineffectiveness of such measures is furnished by Joseph W. Henderson, a young colored man from Texas, who delivered an address at Hartford on Thursday evening, and who, in speaking of Kuklux outrages, declared that "the scoundrels down there drove their ponies at night even when Grant's troops were there." As the *Sentinel* has pointed out, the trouble is due to the prejudice of the whites against the rule of the negroes, and that prejudice "will produce its inevitable effects until it is greatly abated"—an abatement which can only come about through the slow processes of time, and which will be hindered, rather than hastened, by any interference on the part of the "Bill" Chandlers.

How strong is the prejudice even among Republicans in a Northern State against allowing the negro any share in the Government is freshly illustrated by a letter in the New York *Age* from H. C. Smith, editor of the Cleveland *Gazette*, an organ of the colored men in Ohio. There are five Fire Commissioners in Cleveland, four of whom are Republicans. The Fire Department has not a single colored member. Six months ago the Commissioners examined about twenty applicants for places in the Department. One of the twenty was a negro, and he secured the highest average of the whole number in both physical and mental examinations. Nevertheless he was not appointed and has not been appointed yet, while the Republican Commissioners keep on appointing white applicants who stood far below him. There are five Police Commissioners, four of whom are Republicans. About three months ago three colored men entered the examination for places in that Department, and passed with a high standing. Not one of them has been appointed, although forty white men who stood lower than the three negroes have since been given places. The only reason for this unjust discrimination in each case was the color of the skin, and Mr. Smith says that "the same kind of treatment has been given us by every city board controlled by Republicans from which we have asked anything." As long as white Republicans at the North thus openly and unlawfully manifest their prejudice against the few blacks in their States, it requires an uncommon amount of audacity for them to talk about forcing upon white Democrats at the South a rule to which they will not themselves submit.

THE SUPREME COURT.

The suggestion of an increase in the number of judges upon the Supreme bench of the United States is one which Congress may follow with the approval of the public. The nation contained less than four millions of people, nearly all of them along the Atlantic coast, when this court was constituted with six members; and eleven will be none too many for the highest judicial tribunal of a country whose population already reaches sixty-five millions, and is distributed across the continent.

There has been one period in our history when the court contained ten members, and the proposed change will make the number but one larger than it stood between 1863 and 1865, when the area of its authority was largely restricted by the civil war. Beginning with a Chief Justice and five associate justices in 1789, the number of associates was increased to six in 1807, to eight in 1837, and to nine in 1863, when Stephen J. Field was appointed by President Lincoln, making, with the Chief Justice, a bench of ten. Although the Republican party was then supreme in the executive and legislative departments of the Federal Government, the majority of the Supreme Court came down from the ante-bellum period of Democratic dominance, for Roger B. Taney, who had been appointed by Jackson in 1836, and for whose long life "Ben" Wade afterwards thought he had prayed perhaps a little too zealously during the closing years of Buchanan's term, still sat as Chief Justice, and beside him were James M. Wayne of Georgia, another appointee of Jackson (in 1835); John Catron of Tennessee, appointed by Van Buren in 1837; Samuel Nelson of New York, appointed by Tyler towards the close of his Administration in 1845; Robert C. Grier of Pennsylvania, commissioned by Polk in 1846; and Nathan Clifford of Maine, Buchanan's contribution to the

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court in 1858. Lincoln on his inauguration found two vacancies, through the death, a few months before, of Peter V. Daniel of Virginia and the resignation of John A. Campbell of Alabama on the secession of his State, and a third soon happened from the death of John McLean of Ohio, the earliest of Jackson's appointees, dating from 1829. Noah H. Swayne of Ohio, Samuel F. Miller of Iowa, and David Davis of Illinois had been already appointed by Lincoln when Congress authorized an increase of the number of associate justices, and Mr. Field was named.

The Republicans were unwilling to trust Andrew Johnson with the appointment of any judges to this bench, and so, when Catron died in 1865, the number of associate justices was cut down to eight, and on Wayne's death, two years later, to seven. In 1870 the number of associate justices was raised to eight, but it has never since been carried as high as it was between 1863 and 1865, although the necessity for a bench of at least ten members—or, better, eleven, as is now proposed—has long been far greater than it was a quarter of a century ago.

Happily there is no reason why Democrats and Republicans, North and South, should not regard the proposed increase with composure. There is no longer any great question of constitutional interpretation regarding which there is a Southern and Democratic side, as opposed to a Northern and Republican side. The decisions of the Supreme Court during the past twenty years have settled the question of State rights beyond any possibility of reopening. The annulment of the Civil Rights Act in 1883, on the ground that it was unconstitutional in trenching upon the rights of the States, and the decision of the court in the Virginia debt cases in December, 1887, fully established what Justice Miller has styled "the autonomy of the States and their power to regulate their domestic affairs." Of this latter decision a despatch from Richmond, Va., the evening after it was rendered, said: "The decision of the Supreme Court caused great rejoicing here to-day. It is regarded by all classes as a fixed and final triumph of State sovereignty. Men tossed up their hats and cried, 'Hurrah for Virginia! Hurrah for State rights!'"

In view of such a record, it is a matter of little importance whether a new Justice of the Supreme Court is a Republican from the North or a Democrat from the South. The most important work done by the present Republican members has been their rendering of decisions which fully sustained the arguments advanced in Congress by such Democrats as Mr. Thurman against such unconstitutional measures as the Civil-Rights Act, and Mr. Thurman himself could have taken no stronger ground against that measure than did Justice Bradley, who rendered the decision in that case. To those who were familiar with the loose ideas of Mr. Lamar regarding such questions, as illustrated by his support in the Senate of the scheme to allow the Federal Government to interfere with schools in the States—a scheme certainly opposed to the spirit of the Constitution, and which so high Republican authority as ex-Justice Strong considers repugnant to that instrument—there was something absurd about the protests of Republican organs against his appointment, on the ground that he was "a State-rights man." The decisions rendered by the new Northern Republican appointee, Justice Brewer, on the bench of the Circuit Court, indicate that he is a much better State-rights man than his Southern Democratic colleague. Indeed, it is a curious fact that not only is Mr. Lamar a latitudinarian in such matters of construction, but that Justice Field, then the only Democrat on the bench, took the Federal, as opposed to the State, side in the Virginia controversy.

So long as service in the highest court makes Republican justices from the North render decisions which are hailed in the old capital of the Confederacy as the "triumph of State sovereignty," it is a matter of little consequence to the South, in the large view, whether new justices come from one party or the other; and the equanimity with which that section receives Judge Brewer's appointment shows that it recognizes this truth.

At the same time it would be a graceful thing for President Harrison to give the South further representation upon this bench if he is called upon to make more appointments, as is likely to be the case, not only through additions to the number of judges, but through the early withdrawal on pensions of the three judges who are now far past seventy years of age. Practically Mr. Lamar is the only representative of that whole section, Justice Harlan's residence and associations making him almost as much a Northern man as though he had lived in Cincinnati, instead of Louisville, when appointed. Democratic newspapers in Tennessee have mentioned Republican lawyers in that State who are worthy of this honor, and there may be such lawyers in other Southern States. If there are not Republican lawyers of the first rank in the Gulf States, a broad-minded Democrat might well be named. While it is not of importance, as a matter of principle, whether a new judge of the Supreme Court is a Republican or a Democrat, a resident of the North or of the South, it would conduce somewhat to the popular respect for the tribunal if it were not so one-sided in the political affiliations of its members as it will be when Justice Field's withdrawal leaves only Fuller and Lamar to represent a party which numbers fully half the voters of the country, and Lamar the only Southern man among the nine—or perhaps then eleven—members. There was a statesmanlike passage bearing upon this same question in the message sent by Lincoln to Congress on December 3, 1861, which may well be recalled twenty-eight years later:

> "There are three vacancies on the bench of the Supreme Court—two by the decease of Justices Daniel and McLean and one by the resignation of Justice Campbell. I have so far forborne making nominations to fill these vacancies for reasons which I will now state. Two of the outgoing judges resided within the States now overrun by revolt; so that if successors were appointed in the same localities, they could not now serve upon their circuits; and many of the most competent men there probably would not take the personal hazard of accepting to serve, even here, upon the Supreme bench. I have been unwilling to throw all the appointments northward, thus disabling myself from doing justice to the South on the return of peace."

THE MARKET PRICE OF SILVER.

THE *Financial Chronicle* has touched the weak spot in Secretary Windom's silver project by asking the question, "What is the market price of silver?" The market price, it goes on to show, is the price at which a given quantity of silver can be sold on a given day. It is determined by the law of supply and demand. If you increase the quantity to be sold at this particular time, or if you lessen the demand, the market value declines. If you lessen the supply, or if the demand increases, the market value rises. Now, what will happen if the United States Treasury offers to take all the silver in the world at its market value at any time and at all times, and give its notes for the same, and then take the notes at par for all Government dues? In order to increase the market value it will only be necessary for the holders and producers to keep their silver off the market and converge it upon the Treasury. By keeping it off the market they cause the price to advance, because a certain amount will be wanted at all times, for manufacturing purposes if not for currency, and the sale of even the smallest quantity fixes the quotation for the day. Thus, although there is a quotation, there is really no market value in the commercial sense, because the law of supply and demand has ceased to operate. When one buyer offers to take all that can be brought to him at a fixed price, to wit, the price at which, say, 10,000 ounces are sold in London, the essential feature of market price is obliterated, because the essential feature is that if 11,000 ounces were offered in London, the market value would probably be less; if 100,000 ounces, it would certainly be less.

Therefore, issuing Treasury notes at market value is a misleading phrase. It really means issuing them at a fixed price for silver. What will become of the notes when issued? They will go back to the Treasury in payment of taxes. The plan provides that they may be counted as reserves of the national banks, but the banks would not be obliged to receive them. The revenue of the Government would soon consist of these notes exclusively if it should turn out that they were at the smallest discount compared with gold.

This is, in brief, the *Chronicle's* argument, and no flaw can be detected in it. It is all embraced in the idea, or rather axiom, that market value requires free play, and that there is no free play where one buyer agrees to take all offerings at a price momentarily fixed.

That Mr. Windom anticipated this objection, but underrated it, is evident from the following paragraphs in his report:

> "It might be suggested that to issue Treasury notes on unlimited deposits of bullion would place the Government at the mercy of combinations organized to arbitrarily put up the price of silver for the purpose of unloading on the Treasury at a fictitious value.
>
> "This danger may be averted by giving the

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Secretary of the Treasury discretion to suspend temporarily the receipt of silver and issue of notes in the event of such a combination, and he might be authorized, under proper restrictions, to sell silver, if necessary, retaining the gold proceeds for the redemption of the notes.

"The existence of such authority, even if never exercised, would prevent the formation of any effectual combination of this kind, for the reason that a combination to control the silver product of the world would be very expensive, requiring immense capital, and could not be successfully undertaken in the face of the power lodged with the Secretary to defeat it."

The first answer to this is that a "combination" would not be necessary to bring about the result. What all holders of silver see that it is for their interest to do they will do without first forming a syndicate for the purpose. Each one will see that it is for his interest not to break the market, not to lower the quotation. The combination will form itself without the act of combining.

The remedy proposed is, that the Secretary shall be authorized to stop receiving silver whenever he sees fit, and even to become a seller "under proper restrictions." Another suggestion (not exactly a recommendation) is, that, in order to guard against an excess of deposits, the receipt of bullion might be limited to the production of this country, or of this continent, or of "new bullion." The practical difficulties in the way of enforcing this restriction are such that it may be left out of the reckoning at present. Then we have for our means of avoiding danger a proviso that the Secretary may receive silver or not receive it, just as he pleases, and if he thinks he has received too much at any time, he may sell the overplus. Limiting this power to "the event of a combination" signifies nothing, since it is the Secretary's judgment that determines the existence of the combination. He cannot pause to hear arguments or to take testimony upon this point.

Practically, therefore, the Secretary's plan is that he shall be authorized by Congress to receive silver bullion on deposit for Treasury notes occasionally, and to sell it occasionally, the notes to be receivable for Government dues, and to become part of the national currency if the banks choose to treat them as such. Mr. Windom was very strongly convinced of the danger of allowing the Secretary to expand and contract the currency at will by depositing public money in the banks and withdrawing it again. Upon this point he said:

"It involves the exercise of *a most dangerous power* by the Secretary of the Treasury whereby he may, if so disposed, expand or contract the currency at will and in the interests of certain favorites whom he may select."

But his silver project involves not only the same dangerous power of expanding and contracting the currency at will, but also the power to "rig" the silver market of the world by alternate buying and selling. And the peculiarity of the plan is, that without these discretionary powers the whole project is too dangerous to be thought of and quite inadmissible.

OUR WAY OF REFORM.

ONE of the puzzles of American politics to foreign observers is the persistent hopefulness or optimism of the public in the presence of a great many most discouraging phenomena. Mr. Bryce confesses that a "hundred times" in the course of his investigations he came across facts which disposed him to think the American experiment a failure, and just as often as he fell into this state of gloom, he lighted on some tendency or movement which showed him that there was everywhere diffused through the community a *vis medicatrix* which made despair seem a blunder.

Any one who wishes to penetrate the secret of this optimism can hardly do better than study the history of the two great parties since 1850. He will there see that the great reforms are nearly all brought about by the pushing of the abuses to an extreme. The process is usually a very simple one. The evil shows itself, is attacked by literary men, professors, theologians, and the like, who are ridiculed or denounced as visionaries or theorists. The smallness of their numbers as revealed at the first election or two excites merriment. The promoters of the evil feel more confident than ever, and are, in view of the feebleness of the opposition, astonished at their own moderation. They determine to have a better time than ever, or, in other words, to do a little more of the thing which the theorists say they ought not to do at all. They accordingly begin a steady and apparently most enjoyable progress towards some sort of extreme which the reformers have been denouncing as peculiarly odious. If it be slavery in which they take their pleasure, they convert it from a necessary evil into an undeniable good, surround it with religious sanctions, and make it an excellent basis for civil society and demand its extension to new fields. If it be a spirit of speculation and of venality in public life which the reformers are deploring, their enemies produce as a candidate for the highest office in the country somebody who openly and more than any one else represents in the public eye the money-making spirit, and pronounce him, as if in mockery, "the greatest living American." If it be the public use of the Government service for party or personal ends which the reformers decry, the theory is unearthed that the spoils system is a valuable American invention, intended to adapt the work of administration to democratic uses; and the work of distributing small places among personal adherents, though really the moral equivalent of embezzlement, is treated as the first and highest duty of the President and his Cabinet. If it be excessive duties on imports that are complained of, the protectionists not only go to work to raise the duties, but to make the collection of them more vexatious, and more complicated, and to increase the difficulty of obtaining redress for administrative blunders or misconduct.

It is actually in this way that the American people now get to the bottom of a question, and are enabled to decide when to take the broom in hand and cleanse the Augean stable. It is, of course, a cumbersome, and tedious, and terribly expensive process. It is not the process by which reforms in government will continue to be effected. It is a process which the growth of education and of better political habits will, no doubt, some day cast aside as slow and inadequate, and indeed somewhat barbarous in its simplicity. But it seems to be the process which at present is best suited to the average intelligence of the voting population.

Anybody who knows nothing about it, and is not aware that it is going on, may, therefore, readily deceive himself as to the political prospect in the United States at any given time. Nowhere in the world has the proverb that "the darkest hour is just before the dawn" been so frequently verified, and nowhere is a change for the better so close at hand as when things seem as bad as bad can be. Nothing, therefore, has done so much for the deliverance of the Government from the influence of that deadliest and most insidious of all powers, the money power, as the nomination of its great representative, Mr. Blaine, for the Presidency by the Republican party. Nothing has done so much to bring the public mind to a proper sense of the gravity of the spoils system as the violation by the party of its promises of reform and the wholesale removals perpetrated by Mr. Clarkson. Nothing has done so much to promote the cause of ballot reform as the lavish use of money made by the manufacturers at the last election, and the apparently triumphant and insolent supremacy of men like Wanamaker and Quay in Republican councils. Nothing has done so much to promote the cause of tariff reform as the attempt of the Senate last year to meet the demand for revision by raising the duties, and the attempt of the Treasury to harass the importers in the interest of the manufacturers, by open disregard of the judgment of the courts on rules of appraisement.

To all outward seeming, these things indicate the complete triumph of the lawless element in our politics, the class which makes the enrichment of the few through the corruption or indifference of the many, the goal of the national striving. But, in reality, they mean that the end is near, and that, as the Pennsylvanian spoilsman said, with a different meaning, "This hog is fit to kill." The danger of such a mode as this of reaching reform is, of course, that some day the enemy may not be as absurd or audacious as the efficient working of the system requires. But this is a very slight danger after all. Providence has never allowed any people to perish or come to grief for want of a reasonable supply of fools and knaves, and we may be sure we shall always have plenty of them in stock until the day comes when we shall depend less on object-lessons and more on the lessons of recorded experience for extrication from our difficulties.

CITY AND FARM IN CONNECTICUT.

THE Board of Education of the State of Connecticut has just compiled its annual school census of the children of the State who are of the school age, namely, between four and sixteen years. Its returns give an

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opportunity to show how swiftly in New England the decline of the country regions and the simultaneous growth of the cities proceed. The school census of Connecticut is usually made with the utmost care, and can be relied on for general precision. By using its ascertained ratio of 4.44, which the number of children in the State who are of school age bore to the whole population as found in the census year of 1880, we can derive the relative proportions for country and city variation.

In the year 1800 Connecticut had a total population of 251,002, of which 24,131, or only 9.6 per cent., was in the cities. In 1880 her population had risen to 622,700, of which 244,558, or 39.3 per cent., was in the cities. The new school census (1889) shows the number of children of school age in the State to be 159,234, of whom 77,117 are in the cities (or, more strictly speaking, urban towns) of New Haven, Hartford, Bridgeport, Waterbury, Meriden, Norwich, Danbury, New Britain, Middletown, New London, and Rockville (Vernon). Carrying out the ratio of 4.44, the present population of the State becomes 706,992, of which 342,398, or about 48.5 per cent., is in the twelve cities named. Allowing for the fact that the two cities of Danbury and Rockville have been incorporated since 1880, there would still remain about 44.6 per cent. of the population in the cities, which contained 39.3 per cent. in 1880. In the country towns during the nine years past, therefore, the population has fallen 5.3 per cent. of the whole, while in the cities it has risen in the same ratio. This computation gives to the country regions the benefit of the increased population of the many bustling factory towns like Derby, Ansonia, Winchester, and others. If these could be excluded, and only those towns be cited whose industries are exclusively or essentially agricultural, the showing would be very much more striking.

A better test is, perhaps, supplied by a contrast of the four urban counties with the four rural counties of the State. The latter are Windham, Litchfield, Tolland, and Middlesex, containing only the two cities of Middletown and Rockville, which together have a population not exceeding 21,000. Using the same ratio, the population of the two sets of counties this year would be approximately as follows:

Urban Counties.	Population.
New Haven	203,036
Hartford	136,280
New London	73,490
Fairfield	141,488
	554,294
Rural Counties.	
Litchfield	51,410
Windham	43,991
Tolland	23,873
Middlesex	33,424
	152,698

The urban counties now contain, therefore, about 78.5 per cent. of Connecticut's population. In 1880 the four urban counties named contained 467,099, while the rural counties—including their thriving factory towns—contained 155,601. During the nine years the urban counties have thus gained in population 87,195, while the rural counties have lost 2,903. The figures show graphically how steady and swift is the current that sets from the farms in Connecticut and all over New England towards the urban centres.

Some of the results of the impoverishment of the farm towns which the statistics suggest have often been depicted, in the cheapening of lands, the unbalancing of legislative representation, the growth of rural bribery, and other malign consequences. In Connecticut none has been more striking than the fiscal view that the two political parties in country towns take of the position of legislators, and the resulting "rotative habit" of passing the place around and sending untried men to make the laws. How steadily this custom has grown against the old habit of sending the country squires to the Legislature year after year, the subjoined table for the decades since 1780 indicates:

	Whole number of representatives.	Reëlected from previous year.	Per cent. reëlected.
1790	171	109	63.7
1800	189	102	54.0
1810	199	83	41.7
1820	204	53	26.0
1830	208	47	22.6
1840	212	27	12.7
1850	222	27	12.2
1860	236	30	12.7
1870	239	24	10.0
1880	246	23	9.3
1889	249	13	5.2

It would be interesting to find how the development of this rotative custom, which, within certain limits, measures the lowering of legislative *morale*, compares in the other New England States with that of Connecticut. Certainly, it is very marked everywhere, even in the States, like Massachusetts, where the little towns are bunched into districts, and where, consequently, each town thinks another town "hoggish" if it wants to send a member a second time, albeit he may be faithful, able, and honest.

ROBERT BROWNING.

THE death of Browning brings one stage nearer the too plainly approaching end of a literary age which will long be full of curious interest to the student of the moods of the mind of man. Time has linked his name with that of Tennyson, and the conjunction gives to England another of those double stars of genius in which her years are rich, and by which the spirit of an age has a twofold expression. The old opposition, the polarity of mind, by virtue of which the Platonist differs from the Aristotelian, the artist from the thinker, Shakspere from Jonson, shows its efficacy here, too, in the last modern age, and divides the poets and their admirers by innate preferences. It is needful to remember this contrast, though not to insist upon it unduly, in order to approach the work of Browning rightly, to be just to those who idolize him without offence to those who are repelled by him. The analysis of his powers, the charting of his life and work, is not difficult; but the value of his real achievement is more uncertain. Interest centres entirely in his poetry, for his career has been without notable incident, and is told when it is said that he has lived the life of a scholar and man of letters in England and Italy amid the social culture of his time. For the world his career is the succession of books he has put forth, and this is as he would have it; publicity beyond this he did not seek, but refused with violence and acrimony.

In his earliest poem, youthful in its self-portraiture, its literary touch, and its fragmentary plan, the one striking quality is the flow of language. Here was a writer who would never lack for words; fluent, as if inexhaustible, the merely verbal element in "Pauline" shows no struggle with the medium of the poet's art. This gift of facility was, as is usual, first to show itself. In "Paracelsus" the second primary quality of Browning was equally conspicuous—the power of reasoning in verse. These two traits have for a poet as much weakness as strength, and they lie at the source of Browning's defects as a master of poetic art. His facility allowed him to be diffuse in language, and his reasoning habit led him often to be diffuse in matter. In "Sordello" the two produced a monstrosity, both in construction and expression, not to be rivalled in literature. Picturesque detail, intellectual interest, moral meaning, struggle in vain in that tale to make themselves felt and discerned through the tangle of words and the labyrinth of act and reflection. But already in these poems Browning had shown, to himself, if not to the world, that he had come to certain conclusions, to a conception of human life and a decision as to the use of his art in regard to it, which were to give him substantial power. He defined it by his absorption in "Paracelsus" with the broad ideas of infinite power and infinite love, which in his last poem still maintain their place in his system as the highest solvents of experience and speculation; and in "Sordello" he stated the end of art, which he continued to seek, in his maxim that little else is worth study except the "history of a soul." His entire poetic work, broadly speaking, is the illustration of this short sentence. Such prepossessions with the spiritual meaning of life as these poems show made sure the predominance in his work of the higher interests of man; and he won his audience finally by this fact, that he had something to say that was ethical and religious. The development, however, of both the theory and practice of his mind had to be realized in far more definite and striking forms than the earlier poems before the attention of the world could be secured.

It would seem natural that a man with such convictions as Browning acknowledged, should be preëminently an idealist, and that his point of weakness should prove to be the tendency to metaphysical and vague matter not easily putting on poetical form. But he was, in fact, a realist—one who is primarily concerned with things, and uses the method of observation. His sense for actual fact is always keen. In that poem of "Paracelsus," which is a discussion in the air if ever a poem was, it is significant to find him emphasizing the circumstance that he had taken very few liberties with his subject, and bringing books to show evidence of historical fidelity. But, little of the dramatic spirit as there is in "Paracelsus," there was much in Browning when it should come to be released, and it belongs to the dramatist to be interested in the facts of life, the flesh and blood reality, in which he may or may not (according to his greatness) find a soul. Browning was thus a realist, and he chose habitually the objective method of art—but to set forth "the history of a soul." Had he been an idealist, his subject would have been "the history of *the* soul"; his method might or might not have been different. This change of the particle is a slight one, but it involves that polarity of mind which sets Browning opposite to Tennyson. He deals with individuals, takes in imagination their point of view, assumes for the time being their circumstances and emotions; and one who does this in our time, with a preoccupation with the soul in the individual, cannot escape from one overpowering impression, repeated from every side of the modern age—the impression, namely, of the relativity of human life.

This is the lesson which is spread over Browning's pages, with line on line and precept on precept. By it he comes into harmony with the very spirit of the century on its intellectual side, and represents it. The "history of a soul" differs very greatly according to circumstance, native impulses, the needs of life at different stages of growth, the balance of faculties and desires in it, the temperament of its historical period, the access to it of art or music or thought, and in a thousand ways;

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and Browning devotes himself oftentimes to the exposition of all this web of circumstance in order that we may see the soul as it was under its conditions, instead of leaping to a conclusion by a hard-and-fast morality based upon the similarity of the soul in all men. The task happily falls in with his fine gift of reasoning, and increases by practice the suppleness and subtlety of this faculty of his. One might say, indeed, without close computation, that the larger part of his entire poetic work is occupied with such reasoning upon psychological cases, in the manner of a lawyer who educes a client's justification from the details of his temptation. Many of the longer poems are only instances of special pleading, and have all the faults that belong to that form of thought. "The Ring and the Book" is such an interminable argument, marvellous for intellectual resource, for skill in dialectics, for plausibility. "Bishop Blougram," "Mr. Sludge," "Prince Hohenstiel-Schwangau," and others, readily occur to mind as being in the same way "apologies"; and in these one feels that, while it is well to know what the prisoner urges on his own behalf, it is the shabby, the cowardly, the criminal, the base, the detestable, that is masking under a too well-woven cloak of words, and that the special pleader is pursuing his game at the risk of a higher honesty than consists in the mere understanding of the mechanism of motive and act. Yet this catholicity, which seems to have for its motto, "Who understands all, forgives all," is a natural consequence in a mind so impressed with the doctrine of the relativity of human life as was Browning's. The tendency of the doctrine is to efface moral judgment and to substitute for it intellectual comprehension; and usually this results in a practical fatalism, acquiesced in if not actively held. Here, too, Browning's mental temperament has another point of contact with the general spirit of the age, and allows him to take up into his genius the humanitarian instinct so powerful in his contemporaries. For the perception of the excuses for men's action in those of low or morbid or deformed development liberalizes the mind, and the finding of the spark of soul in such individuals does mean to the Christian the finding of that immortal part which equalizes all in an equal destiny, however the difference may look between men while the process of life is going on. Browning came very early to this conviction, that in all men, however weak or grossly set this spark may be, it is to be sought for. In this he is consistently philanthropic and democratic, Christian in spirit and practice, comprehensive in tolerance, large in charity, intellectually (but not emotionally) sympathetic. It is perhaps unnecessary to add that his love of righteousness is not so striking a trait.

But what in all this view of life is most original in Browning is something that possibly perplexes even his devoted admirers. Life, he says, no matter what it may be in its accidents of time, or place, or action, is the stuff to make the soul of. In the humblest as the noblest, in *Caliban* as in *Prospero*, the life vouchsafed is the means (adequate, he seems to say, in all cases) of which the soul makes use to grow in. He thus avoids the deadening conclusions to which his doctrine of relativity might lead, by asserting the equal and identical opportunity in all to develop the soul. He unites with this the original theory—at least one that he has made his own—that whatever the soul seeks it should seek with all its might; and, pushing to the extreme, he urges that if a man sin, let him sin to the uttermost of his desire. This is the moral of the typical poem of this class, "The Statue and the Bust," and he means more by this than that the intention, sinning in thought, is equivalent to sinning in act—he means that a man should have his will. No doubt this is directly in accord with the great value he places on strength of character, vitality in life, on resolution, courage, and the braving of consequences. But the ignoring of the immense value of restraint as an element in character is complete; and in the case of many whose choice is slowly and doubtfully made in those younger years when the desire for life in its fulness of experience is strongest, and the wisdom of knowledge of life in its effects is weakest, the advice to obey impulse at all costs, to throw doubt and authority to the winds, and "live my life and have my day," is of dubious utility. Over and over again in Browning's poetry one meets with this insistence on the value of moments of high excitement, of intense living, of full experience of pleasure, even though such moments be of the essence of evil and fruitful in all dark consequences. It is probable that a deep optimism underlies all this; that Browning believed that the soul does not perish in its wrong-doing, but that through this experience, too, as through good, it develops finally its immortal nature, and that, as in his view the life of the soul is in its energy of action, the man must act even evil if he is to grow at all. Optimism, certainly, of the most thorough-going kind this is; but Browning is so consistent an optimist in other parts of his philosophy that this defence may be made for him on a point where the common thought and deepest conviction of the race, in its noblest thinkers and purest artists, are opposed to him, refusing to believe that the doing of evil is to be urged in the interest of true manliness.

The discussion of Browning's attitude towards life in the actual world of men has led away from the direct consideration of the work in which he embodied his convictions. The important portion of it came in middle life, when he obtained mastery of the form of poetic art known as the dramatic monologue. A realist, if he be a poet, must resort to the drama. It was inevitable in Browning's case. Yet the drama, as a form, offered as much unfitness for Browning's genius as it did fitness. The drama requires energy, it is true, and interest in men as individuals; and these Browning had. It also requires concentration, economy of material, and constructive power; and these were difficult to Browning. He did not succeed in his attempts to write drama in its perfect form. He could make fragments of intense power in passion; he could reveal a single character at one critical moment of its career; he could sum up a life history in a long soliloquy; but he could not do more than this and keep the same level of performance. Why he failed is a curious question, and will doubtless be critically debated with a plentiful lack of results. His growth in dramatic faculty, in apprehension of the salient points of character, and grasp in presenting them, in perception of the value of situation, and power to use it to the full, can readily be traced; but there comes a point where the growth stops. Superior as his mature work is to that of his youth in all these qualities, it falls short of that perfect and complex design and that informing life which mark the developed dramatist. In the monologues he deals with incidents in a life, with moods of a personality, with the consciousness which a man has of his own character at the end of his career; but he seizes these singly, and at one moment. His characters do not develop before the eye; he does not catch the soul in the very act; he does not present life so much as the results of life. He frequently works by the method of retrospect—he tells the story, but does not enact it. In all these he displays the governing motive of his art, which is to reveal the soul; but if the soul reveals itself in his verses, it is commonly by confession, not presentation. He has, in fact, that malady of thought which interferes with the dramatist's control of his hand; he is thinking *about* his characters, and only indirectly *in* them, and he is most anxious to convey his reflections upon the psychical phenomenon which he is attending to. In other words, he is, primarily, a moralist; he reasons, and he is fluent in words and fertile in thoughts, and so he loses the object itself, becomes indirect, full of afterthought and parenthesis, and impairs the dramatic effect. These traits may be observed, in different degrees, in many of the poems, even in the best. In the dramas themselves the lack of constructive power is absolute. "Pippa Passes" is only a succession of dramatic fragments artificially bound together, and in the others the lack of body and interdependent life between the parts is patent to all. "In a Balcony," certainly one of his finest wrought poems, is only an incident. He is at his best when his field is most narrow—in such a poem as "The Laboratory."

There is a compensation for these deficiencies of power in that the preference of his mind for a single passion or mood or crisis at its main moment opens to him the plain and unobstructed way to lyrical expression. His dramatic feeling of the passion and the situation supplies an intensity which finds its natural course in lyrical exaltation. It may well be thought, if it were deemed necessary to decide upon the best in Browning's work, that his genius is most nobly manifest in those lyrics and romances which he called dramatic. The scale rises from his argumentative and moralizing verse, however employed, through those monologues which obey the necessity for greater concentration as the dramatic element enters into them, up to those most powerful and direct poems in which the intensity of feeling enforces a lyrical movement and lift; and akin to these last are the songs of love or heroism into which the dramatic element does not enter. Indeed, in our judgment, Browning's lyrical gift was more perfect than his dramatic gift; he knew the secret of a music which has witchery in it independent of what the words may say, and when his hand fell on that chord, he mastered the heart with real poetic charm. It was seldom, however, that this happy moment came to him, ennobling his language and giving wing to his emotion; and, such poems being rare, it remains true that the best of his work is to be sought in those pieces, comprehending more of life, where his dramatic power takes on a lyrical measure. Such work became more infrequent as years went on, and he declined again into that earlier style of wordy ratiocination, of tedious pleading as of a lawsuit, of mere intellectuality as of the old hair-splitting schoolmen, though he retained the strength and definiteness of mind which mere growth had brought to him, and he occasionally produced a poem which was only less good than the best of his middle age. The translations from the Greek with which he employed his age stand in a different class from his original poems, and were a fortunate resort for his vigorous but now feebly creative mind. At the end he still applied himself to the interpretation of individual lives, but in choosing them he was attracted even more uniformly by something exceptional, often grotesque, in them, and hence they are more curious and less instructive than the earlier work of the same kind.

The mass of Browning's writings which has been glanced at as the expression of the reasoning, the dramatic, or the lyrical impulse in his genius has attracted attention as wide as the English language, and it has been intimated that this success has been won in some degree on other than poetic grounds. It is fair to say, in view of the facts, that many who have felt his appeal to them have found a teacher rather than a poet. Two points in which he reflects his age have been mentioned, but there is a third point which has perhaps been more efficacious than his sense of the relativity of human life or his conviction of the worth of every human soul: he adds to these cardinal doctrines a firm and loudly asseverated religious belief. It is the more noteworthy because his reasoning faculty might in his time have led him almost anywhere rather than to the supreme validity of truth arrived at by intuition. This makes his character the more interesting, for the rationalizing mind which submits itself to intuitive faith exactly parallels in Browning the realist with a predominating interest in the soul. There is no true contradiction in this, no inconsistency; but the combination is unusual. It is natural that, in a time of decreasing authority in formal religion, a poet in Browning's position should wield an immense attraction, and owe something, as Carlyle did, to the wish of his audience to be reassured in their religious faith. Browning had begun with that resolution of the universe into infinite power and infinite love of which something has already been said, and he continued to teach that through nature we arrive at the conception of omnipotence, and through the soul at the conception of love, and he apparently finds the act of faith in the belief that infinite power will finally be discerned as the instrument and expression of

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infinite love. This is pure optimism; and in accordance with it he preaches his gospel, which is that each soul should grow to its utmost in power and in love, and in the face of difficulties—of mysteries in experience or thought—should repose with entire trust on the doctrine that God has ordered life beneficently, and that we who live should wait with patience, even in the wreck of our own or others' lives, for the disclosure hereafter which shall reconcile to our eyes and hearts the jar with justice and goodness of all that has gone before. This is a system simple enough and complete enough to live by, if it be truly accepted. It is probable, however, that Browning wins less by these doctrines, which are old and commonplace, than by the vigor with which he dogmatizes upon them; the certainty with which he speaks of such high matters; the fervor, and sometimes the eloquence, with which, touching on the deepest and most secret chords of the heart's desire, he strikes out the notes of courage, of hope and vision, and of the foretasted triumph. The energy of his own faith carries others along with it; the manliness of his own soul infects others with its cheer and its delight in the struggle of spiritual life on earth; and all this the more because he is learned in the wisdom of the Rabbis, is conversant with modern life and knowledge in all its range, is gifted with intellectual genius, and yet displays a faith the more robust because it is not cloistered, the more credible because it is not professional.

The character of Browning's genius, his individual traits, the general substance of his thought, do not admit of material misconception. It is when the question is raised upon the permanent value of his work that the opportuuity for wide divergence arises. That there are dreary wastes in it cannot be gainsaid. Much is now unreadable that was excused in a contemporary book; much never was readable at all; and of the remainder how much will the next age in its turn cast aside? Its serious claim to our attention on ethical, religious, or intellectual grounds may be admitted, without pledging the twentieth century, which will have its own special phases of thought, and thinkers to illustrate them. Browning must live, as the other immortals do, by the poetry in him. It is true he has enlarged the field of poetry by annexing the experience that belongs to the artist and the musician, and has made some of his finest and most original poems out of such motives; and his wide knowledge has served him in other ways, though it has stiffened many a page with pedantry and antiquarianism. It is true that there is a grotesque quality in some of his work, but his humor in this kind is really a pretence: no one laughs at it; it arouses only an amazed wonder, like the stone masks of some mediæval church. In all that he derived from learning and scholarship there is the alloy of mortality; in all his moralizing and special pleading and superfine reasoning there enters the chance that the world may lose interest in his treatment of the subject; in all except where he sings from the heart itself or pictures life directly and without comment save of the briefest, there is some opportunity for time to breed decay. The faith he preached was the poetical complement of Carlyle's prose, and proceeded from much the same grounds and by the same steps: believe in God, and act like a man—that was the substance of it. But Carlyle himself already grows old and harsh. The class of mind to which Browning belongs depends on its matter for its life; unless he has transformed it into poetry, time will deal hardly with it.

To come to the question which cannot be honestly set aside, although it is no longer profitable to discuss it, Browning has not cared for that poetic form which bestows perennial charm, or else he was incapable of it. He fails in beauty, in concentration of interest, in economy of language, in selection of the best from the common treasure of experience. In those works where he has been most indifferent, as in "Red Cotton Nightcap Country," he has been merely whimsical and dull; in those works where the genius he possessed is most felt, as in "Saul," "A Toccata of Galuppi's," "Rabbi Ben Ezra," "The Flight of the Duchess," "The Bishop Orders his Tomb in St. Praxed's Church," "Hervé Riel," "Cavalier Tunes," "Time's Revenges," and many more, he achieves beauty or nobility or fitness of phrase such as only a poet is capable of. It is in these last pieces and their like that his fame lies for the future. It was his lot to be strong as the thinker, the moralist with "the accomplishment of verse," the scholar interested to rebuild the past of experience, the teacher with an explicit dogma to enforce in an intellectual form with examples from life, the anatomist of human passions, instincts, and impulses in all their gamut, the commentator on his own age; he was weak as the artist, and indulged, often unnecessarily and by choice, in the repulsive form—in the awkward, the obscure, the ugly. He belongs with Jonson, with Dryden, with the heirs of the masculine intellect, the men of power not unvisited by grace, but in whom mind is predominant. Upon the work of such poets time hesitates, conscious of their mental greatness, but also of their imperfect art, their heterogeneous matter; at last the good is sifted from that whence worth has departed.

THE BRAZILIAN REVOLUTION.

TIJUCA (Rio de Janeiro), Nov. 22, 1889.

IT cannot be said that the advent of the Republic in Brazil was entirely unlooked for. It was only through the sagacity of old King Dom João VI.—who, on returning from his American colony to his native kingdom, is said to have advised his son, Dom Pedro, whom he left as Regent, to seize the crown himself, else it would fall into other hands or the country would become a republic—that the more popular form of government was not established in Brazil as it was in the emancipated Spanish colonies. But the new Emperor, Dom Pedro I., was so anxious to appear to be in consonance with the ideas prevailng about him that, when he dissolved the first Constitutional Convention of Brazil, he granted it a most liberal constitutional *charta*, abolishing hereditary aristocracy and privileges, creating a strong legislature, and in short assuring the Brazilians all the liberties and immunities of free citizens. Dom Pedro, however, soon began to lean too much to the reactionary Portuguese party, and the restless natives wound up their opposition by obliging him to abdicate in 1831 in favor of the second and last Emperor, of whose recent dethronement the telegraph must already have given you some news, which I now supplement by mail.

Dom Pedro II. was a liberal monarch, and, during his reign of fifty years, not only has democratic government gained ground, but one of the greatest reforms on behalf of human freedom has taken place in his country, owing mainly to his own enlightened and well-directed initiative. In 1834 the provinces were granted their own legislatures, and empowered to attend to nearly all local matters, though in practice all really important matters continued to be controlled by the central power in this capital. In 1871 Brazil declared that all children born thenceforth of slave mothers were free; and finally, in 1888, on May 13, a law was passed extinguishing slavery in Brazil altogether. These two last laws were countersigned by D. Isabel, the Princess Imperial, who, both times, happened to fill her father's place during his absence in Europe.

Now, whether the Emperor and his daughter, seeing the signs of the times, and convinced that the only monarchy possible in America was a most liberal, semi-republican one, promoted these reforms by assuming a virtue that was not theirs by instinct and education, or, as we are obliged to presume, they were really and sincerely liberal, it must have been apparent to them that every step they made towards pure democracy brought the country nearer and nearer to the Republic. Whenever the fictions of constitutional monarchy are destroyed, the republican forms will take their place. Hence, the idea of the Republic, though, till a short time ago, it had not been promulgated by any strong party, ran in the mind of everybody in Brazil. It was the firm, though latent, thought of every Brazilian of education that, if D. Isabel should ascend the throne at all, she would run great risk of being ejected from it at the first opportune crisis. Not only was she not so highly esteemed as her father, but her husband, the French Prince, Count d'Eu (a grandson of Louis Philippe), was by no means popular, though it is generally admitted that he has always behaved correctly, in public as well as in private life. Besides, D. Isabel, by signing the glorious law of complete emancipation, which is one of the greatest honors that any man or woman might aspire to, incurred the unmixed hatred of the slave-owners—and these slave-owners formed the most influential class in Brazil by reason of their social and political position as well as of their wealth.

But in spite of all these causes which led every thinking man to feel the first symptoms of the Republic, its advent last week was a stupendous surprise, both to the Brazilians generally and to the whole world. The old Emperor, infirm, and absent in his summer residence at Petropolis, was getting ready to open the annual session of his new Parliament, which had just been elected. It was thought that he might soon undertake another trip abroad. His ministers appeared strong; they certainly had managed to admit, in a Chamber of 130, only five or six Deputies in opposition. When, therefore, on the clear sky of November 15 the bolt of the Republic fell in Rio de Janeiro, the whole world was amazed at it, for even the Brazilians did not think that the storm would burst before the Emperor's death.

The immediate causes which brought the whirlwind are very plain. For some time the army and navy were—rightly or wrongly, it is for the Brazilian historian to say—rather insubordinate, and altogether disgusted with the civil power, whose concessions to them only seemed to excite in them a stronger yearning for recognition and influence. The Emperor, upon the formation of his last ministry, five months ago, had insisted upon giving the two military seats of the Cabinet to two military men, a general (who now turns out to have betrayed his colleagues) and a rear-admiral. Even then the military people got enraged at the ministerial policy of putting down the military power and bringing it well in subjection. In pursuing that legitimate purpose, the Ministers, indeed, had shown an absolute lack of tact, and irritated needlessly the army, and even persecuted ostentatiously some officers of both arms of the service. And it was when they thought that one of their spites, which led them to order one of the battalions to a distant province, was about to be carried out, and the Government had taken the material steps to force the battalion to march, that their very officers and soldiers gathered in one of the Rio squares, opposite the headquarters of the War Ministry, themselves revolted, held the whole Ministry in prison, in that department; and then, under the guidance of Marshal Deodoro (a brave and ambitious, but otherwise very common, man), and, reinforced by the Republicans and youth of the Brazilian capital, paraded the streets proclaiming the Republic. Even the

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police force joined the sedition; nay, the naval battalion itself, which had been landed by the Naval Secretary, and the police force of a neighboring town, all deserted the Government. When the Emperor came down in the afternoon and tried to form a new cabinet, Deodoro had already organized a new, provisional Government. That was on Friday, the 15th. On Saturday the Emperor was held, incommunicable, in the city palace, with all his family; and late at night, or rather early on Sunday, he was leaving Brazil, exiled and deposed. On Monday the new self-made ministers were received at the departments without the least hindrance; the form of government of the vast empire had been changed, and the change had been acknowledged everywhere as legitimate and *de facto*.

But while the Republic in Brazil is due mainly to the sword (and here is one of its weakest points), it must be allowed that the military element alone would have accomplished nothing durable were it not for the aid from the Republicans themselves. These were powerless to establish any government, while the military alone could, at most, force the Emperor to change his ministry, and perhaps send him away to Europe; but neither of them separately could expect to lay the foundation of any firm government which would be recognized throughout the country and inspire the least degree of confidence. The truer patriots regret this birth-mark of a *pronunciamiento* in the Brazilian Republic; but it was unavoidable.

The great mass of the people (I believe I interpret their feelings faithfully) regret that the new Government should not have been established at the Emperor's death. They think it brutal that the poor old man, after half-a-century of honest hard work, should be thus packed off. The dictators, to be sure, provided him handsomely with $2,500,000, and assured him the continuance of his civil list, amounting to about $450,000 a year; but the blow given to his pride must have been as awful as it was rude. The Republicans, however, will say that, having defended a cause which they think vital to the happiness of their country, and an opportunity being open to them to lead that cause to a speedy, bloodless, and in every respect peaceful triumph, it would be absurdly illogical to expect that they should let that opportunity escape for the sake of the personal feelings of one man or one family, whoever they might be. On the other hand, the Brazilians who, in the first two or three days, did not offer any resistance, because they were simply overpowered by the suddenness of the change and by the terror that the military inspired, came at once to the conviction that, inasmuch as the Republic was to come some time or other, it was just as well that it had come, and that it immediately solved, without their aid, the great problem of the future which filled them with so much anxiety.

And yet it must be admitted that anxiety for the Brazilians is but begun. To destroy the Empire without civil war might have been a rather thorny task; but to construct a new government is a matter of almost overwhelming difficulty. To be republican is easy: the problem is, What kind of republic shall be constructed? The country is now virtually under a military dictatorship. The provinces, twenty in number, are now States of the "United States of Brazil," and either a military man or some heretofore entirely unknown Republican presides over each, assuming the new title of "Governor," as in the United States of America. While every class of people in the country is making up its mind to adhere to the Republic, it will take some time before things are settled enough so that the election for the Constituent Congress may be held. In the meantime the Brazilians for the first time in their history are under a dictatorship, though a dictatorship which claims to be a trustee of liberty for and on behalf of the people. The Government, while reserving to themselves all political freedom, and having begun to use it by abolishing the life character of the Senate, by dismissing the Council of State (a consulting body of twenty-four statesmen), and by abolishing the local parliaments—the Government, I say, have promised to respect the present civil, commercial, and criminal laws, as well as all contracts and obligations entered into by the Empire, including the public debt, home and foreign, which was quite important to people abroad, inasmuch as but five weeks before the revolution Brazil issued through the Rothschilds $100,000,000 of 4 per cent. bonds, at 90, with an annual sinking fund of half of one per cent., in order to redeem the 5 per cent. bonds of previous loans.

It is as yet too soon to forecast what will be the leading character of the Constituent Assembly, as people have been taken by surprise, and, indeed, have not any accurate idea of their new responsibility. If the election should be really free and unlike the last one for Deputies, we shall have an Assembly composed of the most conflicting ideas, inasmuch as Brazilians know nothing of what a true republic is. There will be, of course, the very conservative element, that will endeavor all it can to give great power to the President; there will also be the French-radical element that will not bear even the mention of a Senate in the new Magna Charta. It is impossible to say what will come out of it. Had these questions been thoroughly studied already, and could one have foreseen which way the greatest weight of opinion would turn, the new decree of the dictators, granting the franchise to every male citizen enjoying civil rights, twenty-one years of age and knowing how to read and write, would itself change any forecast that it might have been possible to make.

However, if the intention of the promoters of the revolution shall prevail, we shall have a constitution modelled much more after the American fashion than the French, though but little is known here of the first. In the three or four acts of the new Government dealing with these matters, the tendency to imitate the United States is not very successful. For instance, why prescribe in a sweeping manner the right of suffrage, a matter which should be controlled by the future States? We should have preferred to have the decree apply only to the election of the Constituent Assembly, and let that body decide the matter. Then, it is most difficult to apply practically the literary or educational test, as Mr. Bryce says he observed in Massachusetts. In my opinion, it is a mistake of the new Government to legislate any more than is strictly necessary; they should confine themselves to carrying the country in peace up to the inauguration of the definitive Government.

Another mistake has been made—and that perhaps irreparable—in ordering twenty-one stars to be inserted in the new flag (which will be like the old one, with substitution of a blue celestial sphere, with twenty-one stars for the imperial arms). We are told that they are typical of the twenty provinces and of the Federal District of the capital. Now, the capital will in all probability continue to be Rio de Janeiro, and if so much prominence, of a quasi-State character, is to be given to Rio, there will be no end of trouble to the Republic. The provinces may not incur danger from militarism, but not so the Federal capital, where, of course, most of the officers will wish to be kept. Then, again, your Boss Shepherd, your Tweed Ring, your Philadelphia Gas Ring, are nothing to compare with the municipality of Rio de Janeiro, though the latter has been somewhat checked by the general Government. What will it be, then, when these twenty-one *vereadores*, with divided responsibility, enjoy the semi-independence that the extra star seems to imply?

Then, again, while the new men have abolished the oath, as prerequisite to taking office, they have ordered a fresh division of the religious parishes. Of course, the Constitutional Convention may upset all this; but it would have been just as well to commence right.

I should like to mention here the opinion of the press about the situation, but I cannot. The *Jornal do Commercio*, the oldest and most influential organ, has said nothing. The *Paix* and the *Diario de Noticias*, whose editors were among the promoters of the revolution and are in the new Ministry, confine themselves to hosannahs of no account. The other important sheet, the *Gazeta de Noticias*, has not said a word about the future Government. The fact is, that people are afraid to pledge themselves to anything. Thus, what the papers are full of is of *adhesões*—that is to say, notices of such and such men having accepted what is really the inevitable. Almost everybody, indeed, adheres to the Republic; for even the greatest and most enthusiastic friends of the Empire and the Emperor are well aware that the Republic has come to stay. In that respect we shall be well off: there is no room here for Legitimists or Orléanists or Bonapartists or Bragantines, except in a platonic and harmless way.

Of course, there are no parties now. What will be the tendency of the new ones to be formed it is difficult to say. Your States were already formed when they entered into the compact of the Confederation, and thence the Republicans and Federalists grew up from the first day on which their representatives met to discuss the nature of that compact—one party pulling inwards, so to say, and the other pushing outwards. But we have no real States here, each with its special development: we have been a highly centralized State, in spite of fine laws on paper. There are three or four provinces where local pride is great, but even they are accustomed to look to Rio de Janeiro for everything. In my opinion, the apple of discord will be offered by the proper division of power between the executive and the legislature. But let us wait and see. J. C. R.

THE FRENCH ÉMIGRÉS AT COBLENTZ.

PARIS, November 28, 1889.

THE history of the French emigration after 1789 has not yet been written. The times are still near us, though a hundred years have elapsed; the passions of 1789 and 1793 are still alive, and France is not yet quite impartial with regard to the actors in her great Revolution. It was said of the émigrés in 1814, at the time of the Restoration, that they had learned nothing and forgotten nothing. We have still much to learn, and much to forgive if not to forget.

M. Alphonse Daudet, the author of so many novels which have been universally read, has a brother named Ernest Daudet, who has devoted himself to the study of history and to journalism. In their childhood the two brothers heard

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many stories about the emigration from members of their family, who were strong Royalists. (In the 'Rois en Exil' Alphonse Daudet has painted a royalist type which could only have been taken from nature.) Their great-uncle, an Abbé Reynaud, had emigrated to England; another uncle had gone to Russia; another member of the family had been killed in Nîmes during the Revolution. One of his aunts had conspired in the South. This subject of the emigration drew the attention of Ernest Daudet a few years ago, and he began researches in our archives, especially at the Foreign Office, where the papers of Louis XVIII., brought back in 1814, are kept. The Russian Government generously sent him copies of the papers of the émigrés, the correspondence of Louis XVIII. and the princes of his family with Paul I. and his successor, Alexander, the documents concerning the journeys of Dumouriez to St. Petersburg, the missions of Saint-Priest and D'Avaray; the correspondence of Cossé-Brissac, Viscount Caraman, the agents of the King, etc. Other documents were sent to him from Germany, Denmark, Sweden.

Three volumes of this 'History of the Emigration' have now appeared under these titles: 'The Bourbons and Russia during the French Revolution,' 'The Émigrés and the Second Coalition' (1797–1800), 'Coblentz' (1789–1793). This volume of 'Coblentz,' which is the third, is chronologically the first, and it ought to have appeared before the others. The inedited documents which have been chiefly used for this first episode of the emigration are the papers of Marshal de Castries, of Marquis de Larouzière, of the Duc d'Harcourt, and a copy of the letters of M. de Calonne.

In the month of July, 1789, Count Valentin Esterhazy was commander of Valenciennes. He had made his military career in France, and was a favorite of Queen Marie Antoinette. On the 18th of July he received the Comte d'Artois, the brother of the King; the three Princes of Condé followed in a second carriage—Condé, the head of the family, the Duc de Bourbon, his son, the Duc d'Enghien, his grandson. They were fleeing, with a few friends, before the Revolution. Many others followed. On this first list of the émigrés we find the greatest names of France. "We shall be back in three months," said cheerfully the Comte d'Artois to Esterhazy. They did not believe in the vitality of the Revolution; it was a mere storm, and they took shelter for a while in foreign lands. The two sons of the Comte d'Artois, the Duc d'Angoulême and the Duc de Berry, arrived soon after their father. The Comte d'Artois, after some hesitation, went to Brussels. In the south many French families took refuge in Chambéry and in Nice. All over France, the peasants had begun a sort of agrarian war; they ceased to pay their rents, and burned the châteaux. Taine has insisted upon this point, that the Revolutionary disorders became almost universal, and began spontaneously, in 1789, as soon as the Versailles Assembly had organized itself and had begun its constitutional work.

In October there was a new flood of emigration after the King and Queen had been dragged by force from Versailles to Paris and had virtually become prisoners. As soon as the Emperor of Austria heard of the arrival of the Comte d'Artois in Brussels, he wrote to his sister, the Archduchess, who was Governess of the Low Countries, that he would not tolerate the presence of the French princes in Brussels. The Prince left for Turin, where lived his father-in-law, Victor Amadeus of Savoy. He was allowed to remain there, and was joined by his family, by the Condés, and many courtiers.

What were the projects of the Princes? They wished to form a legion of noblemen and of volunteers, and to reconquer France, as Henri IV. had done. Had not Voltaire said of Henri IV., at the beginning of a famous poem—

"Je chante ce héros qui régna sur la France
Et par droit de conquête et par droit de naissance"?

Had not the great Condé, Turenne, and many others, allied themselves with Spain against Mazarin? The idea of a civil war did not appear monstrous in the eyes of the émigrés: it seemed natural to reconquer, sword in hand, what they considered as their rights. Louis XIV. had treated the English émigrés with the greatest generosity, and had helped them in every way. But the times were changed; the French émigrés counted upon the support of all the kings, but they soon found that all the kings and emperors had interests of their own, that they all desired a diminution of the strength of France; they were only roused to a common resistance after they had all suffered in turn and felt the weight of the Napoleonic despotism.

The kings had an easy excuse for doing as little as possible for the émigrés, as the official language of the French diplomats was completely at variance with their language. As long as Louis XVI. was still nominally King, they were not obliged to believe what the Princes said. They really never knew exactly if the King and the Princes were or were not secretly in unison, in what they differed or in what they agreed. The negotiations of the Comte d'Artois with the various courts were always of the most confused character. The émigrés themselves were divided and quarrelled incessantly; they lived in a cloud of false rumors. Condé seems to have had the clearest ideas; he had an equal antipathy for the republicans and for the monarchists like La-Fayette, Mirabeau, Tollendal, Mounier, of those who tried to preserve the life of the King if they could not preserve his authority. "I will," said he in his manifesto, "notwithstanding the horror which a descendant of Saint Louis must feel in shedding French blood—I will go at the head of the nobility of all nations and followed by all the faithful subjects of the kings, and try to deliver our unfortunate monarch." Upon which Esterhazy said: "I am afraid the Prince of Condé is not as adroit as William Tell: he will strike the head without hitting the apple."

Sybel says that the Queen had little sympathy with the émigrés: she did not believe in them; she did not wish to triumph through their efforts—first, because she did not believe in the possibility of reëstablishing the ancient régime, of which they proclaimed themselves the champions; and, secondly, because their triumph would have been in reality the annihilation of the King. At any rate, she thought that an open alliance with the emigration would put an end to all chance of a monarchical restoration. What she wished was to go with the King to La Vendée, to the South or to the East of France, and to call for the help of the Emperor Leopold, who was the successor of Joseph II. But Leopold remained indifferent; he contented himself with advising his sister to leave Paris. She was a prisoner, surrounded with spies and with enemies. Meanwhile Calonne, in Turin, was becoming the real leader of the emigration. He was trying to form a coalition. Louis XVI. was afraid of his influence and set against him Breteuil, who entered into relations with Fersen, Mercy, and Bouillé. Their plan was a flight of the King and the royal family to Metz. The Comte d'Artois had begun to sign papers with these words: "Considering the captivity of my brother," and to treat directly with the sovereigns. Condé had left Turin in disgust and was organizing a legion in Germany. The National Assembly threatened to send troops into the electorates in order to compel the German Princes, who had possessions in Alsace, to accept its decrees. Condé reviewed, on the plain of Neuwied, three thousand émigrés, who remained in the neighborhood of Worms.

On May 6, 1791, after the death of Mirabeau, Marie Antoinette wrote to Mercy: "You know that my opinion has been, as much as possible, that we could be helped only by time, mildness, public opinion. Now all is changed. Either we must perish or do the only thing that remains for us." She meant flight; she knew that flight was dangerous, perhaps impossible. Her friends worked in vain, and when the royal family went to Varennes it was arrested and brought back to Paris. From that moment the Comte de Provence, the eldest brother of the King, joined the Comte d'Artois; they decided to take no account of the official orders of the prisoner King. They organized together at Coblentz a little army independent of the army of Condé, which remained at Worms.

The Comte d'Artois sent Esterhazy to St. Petersburg, where he was favorably received. At Pillnitz the Emperor of Austria and the King of Prussia made a declaration favorable to the French royalists. Catherine had gone so far as to send two millions to the Princes, but she wrote at the same time that circumstances "did not allow her to enter actively into the affairs of France." She promised, however, "d'être de la partie" in the following spring. Meanwhile the Revolutionary Assembly pronounced punishment of death against all the émigrés (in the Report their number was estimated at 200,000), their wives, their children, "if they are more than ten years old," their debtors if they acquitted their debts. Their property was confiscated.

The military émigrés were at Coblentz, Mayence, Worms; there were many poor artisans and civilians in Soleure and Fribourg in Switzerland. Emigration was for some a fashion, for others a hard necessity. Misery was in waiting for all. A Princess de Vaudemont, born Montmorency, and widow of a Prince of Lorraine, sold books in Hamburg under an assumed name. The memoirs of Gouverneur Morris give many interesting details about the refugees at Hamburg. Chateaubriand, in his 'Mémoires d'Outre-Tombe,' gives the details of his life with the army of Condé, and afterwards in England. The emigration had at first its heroic phase, the period during which Condé and others thought that they could reconquer by force what they had lost. Then came the period of conspiracy, and finally came the period of total annihilation, when the greater number of the émigrés returned to France, and when so many became the courtiers, the officers, the servants of Napoleon and his family.

M. Ernest Daudet, in this volume on Coblentz, speaks only of the heroic period. He has not had at his command the correspondence of Condé and of his officers, which is still unpublished, and will probably remain so for a long time. He deals more with the Comte d'Artois, and enters minutely into the confused details of his vain negotiations with the courts. There are many interesting facts in the history of the relations of the émigrés with the Electors, with the King of Prussia, Francis II., and Brunswick. Condé was finally obliged to dismiss his troops, and many of his soldiers passed into the

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Austrian service. The invasion of the Electorates by Custine threw the camp of the émigrés into the greatest confusion; the French Princes had to take refuge first at Liége, then at Hamburg. After the execution of Louis XVI., Monsieur (such was the name given to the Comte de Provence) proclaimed himself Regent of France, and made declarations which were not much noticed at the time in the great confusion created by the war. He proclaimed the young Dauphin, who was still alive and in the prisons of the Convention, King of France; and though he had not a regiment, nor any financial resource, and was respectfully ignored by the potentates of Europe, he announced his determination to stand by his historical rights, and flung, so to speak, the gauntlet before the Revolution.

The events which filled this terrible period give M. Ernest Daudet's book an intrinsic interest, which, unfortunately, has not been enhanced by a brilliant style nor a good classification of facts, nor a clear and dispassionate judgment of men.

Correspondence.

RACE PREJUDICE IN KANSAS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of December 5, commenting on race prejudice, you refer to "the recent election in Lawrence, Kan., at which seven out of eight white Republicans refused to vote for the excellent party candidate for County Clerk, merely because he was a colored man." The colored vote of Lawrence is too large to be offended by any party that aims to elect its candidates, and, in fact, the Republican party has always dealt liberally with the colored man in our local politics. At the recent election no colored man was a candidate for County Clerk or any other office, and consequently the above alleged "knifing" of a colored candidate is fictitious, or should, perhaps, have been attributed to some one of the several other Lawrences in the United States.

W. H. Carruth.

State University, Lawrence, Dec. 12, 1889.

[Read Topeka, in place of Lawrence; a slip of the pen.—Ed. Nation.]

POPE AND PRESIDENT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Possibly I can supply "Natus" with a reason why, at the recent Catholic University banquet at Washington, the health of the Pope was drunk before that of the President. At the annual dinners of the Society of Sons of St. George at Philadelphia, the toast to the Queen always precedes that to the President. Some years ago I asked one of the managers of the feast why that order was observed, and he explained that, the British sovereign being a foreigner, it was thought to be no more than a fitting exercise of conventional courtesy towards the stranger to salute the foreign before the domestic ruler. Very likely the same consideration prevailed at the Catholic banquet, and I presume it was for a like reason that the foreign guest, Cardinal Taschereau, was placed to the right of the Chairman, and our own fellow-citizen, President Harrison, seated on the left.

Subject to correction by such argument as "Natus" may supply, I confess my belief that both practices to which I have alluded are, or were, right, according to the canons of good behavior in social matters. C. F. B.

Washington, December 13, 1889.

PETRARCH AND VOLTAIRE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your reviewer of Ten Brink's History of English Literature, in his appreciative and able criticism, says, among other things: "Ten Brink's parallel between Petrarch and Voltaire (p. 53) is as bold as it is novel to us, but we are not at all disposed to cavil at it." I hope I shall not seem to be detracting from the honor of the illustrious author, in admiration of whom I would not confess myself second to your reviewer, if I point out that the idea of instituting a parallel between these two geniuses is not original with Ten Brink. Five years ago Prof. Gustav Koerting, a distinguished Romance scholar, published a volume entitled 'Die Anfänge der Renaissancelitteratur in Italien,' on pp. 418-423 of which an extended comparison between the two occurs, accompanied with the suggestion, in a footnote, that some one should undertake a more detailed treatment of the subject. It would not be difficult to discover striking similarities in the estimates formed by these two modern historians of literature. Koerting speaks of certain differences "zwischen dem Begründer der Renaissancecultur und dem Hauptvertreter der sogenannten Aufklärungsperiode"; Ten Brink calls Petrarch "der Prophet des Humanismus, wie jener der Prophet der Humanität und der Aufklärung." Koerting says: "Selbstverherrlichung war für beide das erste und letzte Ziel alles ihres Strebens"; Ten Brink expresses the same thought, which, indeed, is obvious enough, with a difference: "Beide zeigen die Sensibilität und die Eitelkeit in gleichem Masse entwickelt." With respect to the contemporary and posthumous honors showered upon them, Koerting has these words: "Der Eine wie der Andere ist im Leben schon der Apotheose theilhaftig geworden und nach dem Tode Gegenstand begeisterter Verehrung geblieben"; Ten Brink's thought is not dissimilar: "Beiden wird schon in ihrem Leben die höchste Anerkennung zu Theil: eine bis zur Apotheose gehende Verehrung und—das theuerste Ziel ihres Strebens—der Lorbeerkranz." With the latter part of this sentence of Ten Brink's might be compared the following from Koerting: "Beide träumten ehrgeizige Träume von Lorbeerkronen, . . . und beiden wurde oft genug der Traum zur Wirklichkeit."

But I should be sorry to leave the impression that one parallel is a mere echo of the other. They differ greatly in length, Ten Brink's being much more concise. Ten Brink's characterization is more delicate, minute, and extended, while Koerting apparently has the merit of originating the comparison, unless, indeed, he in turn derived the idea from Lowell's essay on Rousseau and the Sentimentalists, in the first volume of 'Among My Books.' Lowell's comparison, it is true, is rather between Petrarch and Rousseau; but there is a suggestive likeness between certain parts of his judgment of Petrarch and the antithetically expressed opinions on p. 422 of Koerting's book. Albert S. Cook.

Yale University.

THE ANGELUS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Apropos to your note on the Angelus in the *Nation* of December 5, 1889, permit me to quote the following from Larousse (ed. 1866), vol. i., p. 359:

"On croit que ce fut Louis XI. qui introduisit à Paris l'usage du triple son de l'angelus, dont quelques érudits font remonter la première origine au pape Urbain II. [died 1099]."

I subjoin a bit from Lamartine that seems to me to have suggested Millet's picture:

"C'est *l'angelus* qui tinte et rappelle en tout lieu
Que le matin des jours et le soir sont à Dieu.
A ce pieux appel le laboureur s'arrête,
Il se tourne au clocher—il découvre sa tête,
Joint ses robustes mains d'où tombe l'aiguillon,
Elève un peu son âme au dessus du sillon."

Yours truly,

W. H. Garrison.

Philadelphia, December 6, 1889.

SQUATTER HARDSHIPS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: While the proper means of diminishing the Treasury surplus has been causing so much trouble in both of the great parties, it has often occurred to me that a portion of this surplus, and a goodly amount at that, might well be applied to a more rapid completion of the various inland surveys. Without mentioning the many and excellent general reasons for completing all our surveys, I will refer to some particular ones that are applicable to the surveys of our frontier agricultural lands. People generally can have no idea how rapidly the good surveyed land has been "taken up" in the West. In Oregon and Washington there are to-day practically no desirable surveyed lands not occupied; and for several years immigrants have been obliged to seek homes in the unsurveyed country if they wished to find really good places.

The necessity of settling on unsurveyed land or holding land by squatter's right involves many injustices and risks to the farmer, which tend to keep any such community in a continuous uproar. This is brought to my mind to-day particularly by the marked article in the *Okanogan Outlook*, which accompanies this letter. To your average reader this article would not be very intelligible, so I will mention a few of the causes of dissatisfaction that all bona-fide squatters are subjected to.

The settler who goes away from the settlements and beyond the survey does so under many privations, and only because he hopes to secure a fertile homestead. When he has selected his claim, he cannot obtain a title to it till after it has been surveyed; and, instead of feeling secure of his possession after a five years' residence, he is obliged to remain there uninterruptedly, year after year, to hold it, by force frequently and never securely, till the survey has been made. I know many instances where a residence of twenty years would go for nothing if the squatter were to absent himself for six months; and, in case of a solitary squatter's dying, there is no adequate way to protect his heirs in their rightful inheritance. Often, and I may say generally, the claim-jumpers, who form a regular class in the wild country, band together to annoy the squatters by themselves squatting on his land until their demands for blackmail are satisfied, or until they are got rid of at the risk of the rightful occupant's life. This is possible, as apparently there is no court that has jurisdiction over unsurveyed lands. Another instance is where prospectors lay claims to land occupied only for farming, by filing one kind or another of mineral claim with the county (or mineral) recorder. No land, unless surveyed and properly filed upon at the Land Office, is secure from such depredation, as the mineral prospector has by law means of overriding the farmer and securing title to land by special survey.

A third and most universal complaint is that land which has been staked out by the squatter and improved, perhaps for years, *never* coincides with the lines of the actual survey; so that half of a squatter's improved claim may

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be lost to him for the benefit of the first comer, while the original occupant must complete his acreage by taking land on either side which is often devoid of value. A little thought will enable any one to see many other hardships that are sure to be incurred by the squatter before he has secured his patent from the Government; and I can say from observation and experience that this deplorable condition exists in all unsurveyed lands that are fit for habitation.

To accomplish the necessary surveys would require a large expenditure; but such expenditure would not be simply a means of dissipating our "surplus," as has been objected to so many schemes that have been proposed for the reduction of the surplus. On the contrary, it is a matter of justice, and of necessity, that exists independent of our financial ability to accomplish, and is an undertaking which, if carried out with a care not to survey the useless and barren tracts, would be an unmixed good to the country at large. This work must be done before many years, and, if done now, will cost the Treasury no more than it would if done later; while it would be a paying investment for the intermediate period, as well as an act of justice to the frontier farmer.

To appeal to the practical politician, I might dwell upon the opportunities which such an expenditure would afford for the distribution of patronage and division of spoils. In making such an innuendo I strengthen my position by showing a benefit to accrue to the good and the bad, as, like the sun, it would shine for all.

GUY WARING.

BOSTON, MASS., December 11, 1889.

A NEW VOCATION FOR PEERS OF THE REALM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The belted earl having ceased to be the leader of men in battle, and having vacated his position in the House of Lords as a factor in legislation, appears to be seeking new functions in which to distinguish himself. He is now engaged in promoting the investment of English capital in American securities, and has lately taken up the business of making and selling *pills*, *yeast powders*, and *safe medicines*. It is possible that he may not lead more people to mutual slaughter than he did in the olden times; but it is rather an extraordinary fact, a little out of the common course, to find the Earl of Crawford in the position of Chairman of the Board of Directors for "taking over," as they call it in England, the business of making and vending proprietary medicines in this country. He probably goes into this business in order to sustain a position in which he has become more ornamental than useful. Reference may be made to the full-page advertisement of a corporation of limited liability, with a capital of £550,000, which will be found on the last page of the last number of the *Economist* printed in London. How much English capital will come to the United States in compensation for this undertaking, one may not be able to compute, but one may be very sure that most of it, whatever the amount may be, will come to stay.

In olden times they called the man engaged in commerce a *merchant adventurer*. By what title ought the Earl to be greeted who ventures to induce his fellow-countrymen to adventure their capital into an undertaking in which the profit is in ratio to the amount spent on advertising the product rather than on the quality of the ingredients which are put into it? The slang term for an advertisement is an "ad:" If we should add an "ad." to the title of him who ventures upon such a scheme, we find that we have fitted the title of *adventurer* upon one who is not a merchant; and the modern significance of this word corresponds to what they call in France a *chevalier d'industrie*—a noble title put to a base service. What other title would suit this case? QUERIST.

TWO FORMS OF THE "AUSTRALIAN" BALLOT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: All the recent election laws have commonly been called "Australian." I wish to draw attention to the fact that the Ballot Acts, in regard to the arrangement of the names on the ballot, may be divided into two groups.

In the first group are the acts of Massachusetts, Montana, Minnesota, Rhode Island, Wisconsin (the generel election law), Tennessee, and Kentucky. These follow the Australian, English, and Canadian system, in which the names of all candidates nominated for an office are placed together in alphabetical order.

In the second group are the acts of Indiana and Missouri, following the Belgian system, in which the names of the candidates nominated by a party are placed together, arranged respectively under the title of the office for which they have been nominated, Independent candidates being placed in a separate column.

The first system is fair to all. The second is in the interest of strict party voting.

M. WYMAN, JR.

CAMBRIDGE, December 12, 1889.

THE ABANDONED FARMS OF MICHIGAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: While attention is directed to the "abandoned farms" of New England, it will be well to put in a bit of concurrent testimony from as far west as Michigan. Our last State census was taken in 1884, and shows that in the four years after 1880 fourteen counties actually lost population. In four other counties a single railroad centre in each county gained in population more than the county—in other words, these four counties would have lost population but for one growing city in each.

The special cause in this case was the attractiveness of Dakota, which was just then filling up rapidly with homesteaders. No future census is likely to tell a similar story. There are no more Dakotas left for homestead entry.

E. W. MILLER.

BIG RAPIDS, MICH., December 10, 1889.

THE REVIVAL OF AGRICULTURE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Some time in September, I think, you called attention to the published statements, from the Commissioners of Agriculture for the States of Vermont and New Hampshire, concerning abandoned farms. In the first-named State about 30,000 acres were specified, generally with "fair" or "good" buildings and good soil, at an average price under $5 an acre. The New Hampshire catalogue itemized 233 farms, 26,871 acres, at an *asking* price of $291,875, or an average per acre of $10.86. A very interesting correspondence has followed in your columns, advancing reasons for the decay of farm values in New England, and suggesting remedies. Your journal, during the discussion, has shown editorially and in its correspondence some conspicuous instances of like disease common in Massachusetts. Throughout New England good farms, with comfortable buildings and productive soil, for sale under $10 per acre, are not exceptions in the real-estate market, but the rule, or, at least, common. In this State, New York, from my personal knowledge, in the Hudson River counties of Orange, Dutchess, Ulster, and Rockland—certainly a section of some agricultural renown, and with all facilities to which farming looks for success—the facts are not very much better: a 50 per cent. decline at least in prices during the twenty years of my experience. Indeed, I believe that the average farm here can be bought for $30 per acre. Of course, this is on the agricultural basis only; country places, commanding views, improved grounds, etc., have very different rating. On Orange Lake, a pleasure resort seven miles from Newburgh, a farm of 400 acres was sold within a month at $20 per acre in parcels.

Mr. Joel Benton, writing on "The Decadence of Farming" in the November number of the *Popular Science Monthly*, extends the shrinkage in farm values West to the Mississippi. He reports that in Illinois the mortgage indebtedness of farmers for borrowed money—not on deferred payments of purchase money of their farms—has increased 23 per cent. since 1880; that in the Western States farm mortgages amount to $3,422,000,000, equivalent to a debt of $200 per capita for each person, or $1,000 to each head of a family. So we may go on with testimony, and strengthening the evidence of students with the columns of advertisements in rural papers and from sale reports of foreclosures.

The reasons advanced by the several writers for this widespread and increasing condition of agricultural depression are:

(1.) The competition of machine work on the great, smooth prairie farms (note here, for later consideration, that rich partnerships or incorporated companies are the winning competitors). (2.) The many long lines of transportation, bringing all kinds of agricultural products, each from a specially favored locality, to the great Eastern markets, and so fighting one another for business on their competing extensions that freight for a thousand miles' haul costs no more than what he pays who labors but one hundred miles from the common market. (3.) Direct taxation, whereby the farmer's wholly *visible* estate is mulcted to the extent, actually, of from 2 to 4 per cent. of its *market* value, while the much invisible personalty of his town neighbor escapes. (4.) The tariff, artificially raising the cost of the farmer's necessities—his clothing, food, and tools. (5.) The scarcity of native farm laborers. (6.) That most other fields offer superior inducements to the money-loving, masterful man. (7.) Government bounties of citizenship and almost free lands, and virtually free transportation (by guaranteed bonds to railroads carrying immigrants to the bounty lands) to tramps from Europe—an unnatural and unnational squandering of resources, and the discounting of the inheritance of our children. (8.) The rough topography of the Northeast States, unfavorable to wholesale farming. (9.) The mechanical and uninteresting nature of farm work (as pursued by individual, not associated effort), compared with other industries now tempting the greatest range of tastes and energies by constantly developing novelties.

Such are the principal reasons I read in the authorities cited for the decline of farming. There are as many remedies proposed. But the symptoms are facts, the medicines empiric. The diagnosis made by so many earnest men is instructive and very interesting. I would come into the consultation with some minor observations and suggestions.

(a.) Farming, contrary to the ruling prac-

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tice in other businesses, is, in the majority of cases, taken up or inherited without any other capital than that dead in a plant rigorously taxed (see 3 above). "Quick (cash) capital" ("G. B.," page 389 of your No. 1272) is wanting to give momentum, to properly equip, to meet wear, to provide for emergencies, or command improvements as inventions or ever-new markets demand; thus, also, without that æsthetic but essential margin, where business centres in the home, to make the farm attractive even in its business aspect, much less to make its domestic life sweet or comfortable beyond bare necessity. Other businesses providently lay by some art or grace, but this boasts no surplus save nature's alms.

(b.) In farm management there is the absence of well-defined, unremitted, clear business system. The administration and execution which together rule peremptorily in the ordinary town business practice, have but precarious existence, and the money showing (evident as the face of a clock) through all moments of the shopkeeper's, or manufacturer's, or broker's work, is put aside until some urgent call obliges the farmer to learn "the time." Finance is the foundation of business proper. It is but the porch or attic of the farmer's practice.

(c.) The *world* of trade is not studied by the farmer. He knows only the traffic of his market town and his county, and he is slow to "catch on" to the new and progressive. He repeats the accidental lessons of 1861-65, believing that what the exigencies of war-times required, and made profitable to him because of our then national circumscription, is the truth and his policy now. He does not care to hear of tariff reform. "But it is the impending truth—which will some day, and I think very soon, filter into the farmer's mind—that alone can save him."

I think that my (a) above is a principal cause of farm failure. The last half of that finding is an inherent result. In (b), too, are cause and effect almost inseparable. Where so large part of work is executive—bodily labor out of doors—administration and finance can have but small care; (c), also, is, in the very nature of farm life, isolated in comparison with the lot of the city man, where friction on all sides makes sharp and bright the receptive and ratiocinative faculties. The farmer travels the country road worn by heavy, infrequent traffic in certain ruts, out of which he is loath to turn his wheels; but the time comes when he must or be run down.

Our great farming industry—the very soil of national growth—is not going to the "demnition bow-wows." If the tide has long been running out, the time of ebb is near at hand. Organization by a class so widespread and cut off from congregation—as possible by initial masses of city population—is difficult; and diversity of objects—live-stock, wool, cereals, fruits, roots, vegetables, tobacco, etc.—weakens common action. If legislation, national and State, is desirable to *force* a new position—which may well be questioned—the farmers' influence and vote (about 30 per cent. of our population) can secure it by "pooling their issues."

Judge Nott (*Nation*, No. 1273) suggests partial and local relief by stocking large areas of the abandoned farms in Vermont and New Hampshire with "our indigenous animals which can brave the Northern winters, . . . half-bred buffalo, or the deer of the Adirondacks." Held and protected by a ring fence, he believes they would become semi-domesticated, and nearly as prolific as sheep. They would live mostly in the woods, otherwise waste land, and be helped through the winter with scattered stacks of mountain hay. Such husbandry might be profitable. That is a good subprovision. Indeed, deer-raising under similar conduct is now practised in a few instances, though not in New England, but it can only be exceptional—a makeshift. We want to prescribe for the whole body of agriculture.

Let us take it, then, into the line of regular business, as iron, coal, dry goods, shipping, banking, etc.; remove it from desultory practice and individualism, and treat it according to the fashion that the times demand for large affairs. Associated organization by partnerships or corporate companies, with money capital equal at least to the real-estate value, is my theory of cure for the ills of agriculture. On a modern battle-field, what can a thousand badly equipped bushwhackers do in comparison with a company of one hundred well-disciplined and equipped regulars? In the skilled commercial economy of the United States, how awkward and dispersed is the power of agriculture in proportion to its numbers! And why? Because everywhere it lacks concentration, organization, "quick" capital.

Ten (man-)units owning a thousand acres may perhaps work efficiently one hundred, while five men in united management could cultivate five hundred acres. Now, I want the ten hands of the five men and five brains to have but one head executive, and a common purse of ready cash equal in amount to what the five hundred acres, with buildings and tools, would sell for at forced sale. To illustrate in outline what I believe can be done generally in agriculture, and with success, let us suppose a capable syndicate of three to select, say, fifteen hundred of those abandoned acres in Vermont or New Hampshire at, say, $6,000. They should lie in a solid body and comprise about fourteen once separate farms, each having tenantable buildings, "fairly comfortable" and "good soil." It would be very well if five hundred acres stood in woods forty or fifty years old, but it is not probable that such timber has been spared where farms have been worked. Now, the three wise men with money will proceed to spend more than first cost to repair fences and walls, make the buildings tight and comfortable, and put the whole property in fair shape and on equal footing. If well done, it may stand them in at $10,000. Meantime, the three gentlemen, business men and money-makers, but, nevertheless, of benevolent imagination when a little indulgence of such kindly pleasure may not endanger their reputation for success, have agreed to graft an educational branch on their real-estate investment, on a plan which space will not permit me to particularize here, but which looks to the performance of much of their farm labor by young men who would like, on a business basis, to learn the theories as well as the practice of well-ordered farming under conditions of fair social advantages, and of less stolid drudgery than is the rule on the average farm. The inviting business basis is, that every young man matriculated in the School of Agriculture becomes both a laborer on the farm and a stockholder in the company. To capitalize the undertaking is the objective business point of the original syndicate, who exchange their investment for stock in the company, and, the total stock being figured at $———, the balance is put on the market. The president is the business manager and farm superintendent. He and the executive committee of the directors are supposed to be skilled both in agriculture and finance. Besides one resident, technical, general instructor in the academic department, and the president, all other house teaching is by lectures, say three or four for terms of three months each, continuous or dispersed over the year, and paid accordingly, as a lyceum or Young Men's Christian Association hires its lecturers. In this course would be (1) soil culture, cereals, grasses, and drainage; (2) stock-raising and roots; (3) fruits and market gardening; (4) forestry and farm mechanics. These subjects are merely suggested.

All officers, teachers, students, master laborers, and, indeed, all persons connected personally with the farm, are supposed to be stockholders in the company, each to the amount of at least $500. The student's course is three years at, say, $100. Each student must put in two hundred days' labor, eight hours per day, and as assigned at from 50 cents to $1.50, graded according to kind of labor and his ability therein. Students are lodged and boarded in the several farm-houses adapted to such purposes and let to keepers under the farm superintendent's governance, board and lodging being $350 per year. The main house of the company's farm is for lectures and recitations, library, laboratory, society and reading-rooms. The company runs a store, and blacksmith and carpenter shop combined. We may suppose that, with officers, students (50), and other contributing attachés, capital stock might be subscribed to the amount of about $40,000, of which $10,000 would be in the original plant, and perhaps $10,000 more in academic fittings, farm machinery, etc. If the company makes a profit, it will be disbursed up to 5 per cent. in dividends to stockholders, and the surplus go to increased farm investment or to a sinking fund.

Now, in this scheme we have, I think, farm education and practical labor under the organized, concentrated system and discipline of expert business method and object. We have brains, hands, real estate, and "quick" capital sufficient and adjusted to the undertaking. Association will not only supply impetus and means to success, but furnish, by the way, those social and mental bare places of ordinary farm life. No longer may we appositely quote:

> "But Knowledge to their eyes her ample page,
> Rich with the spoils of time, did ne'er unroll;
> Chill Penury repressed their noble rage,
> And froze the genial current of the soul."

For benefit to State and county of such a business coming into any rural dulness with life, example, and money, the charter of incorporation can well afford to exempt the company's personal property—the quick capital to vivify a considerable neighborhood—from taxation.

My illustration is but an unfilled drawing. With or without the academic background, it suggests that we may look to associated capital and the power of organized administration supporting business execution for the practical relief of agriculture, now crippled over a large area of our country. CLARENCE GORDON.

NEWBURGH, N. Y., December 7, 1889.

Notes.

WE learn that the late Gen. F. W. Palfrey had had the fifth volume of his father's 'History of New England' put in type and submitted to friends for correction. From the returns he had perfected the copy for the printer before he left home in October to make his last struggle for life. We may, therefore, expect the volume to be published before very long.

The Historical Society of Pennsylvania will shortly publish the Narrative of the Tory Dr. John Conolly concerning whom we lately

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gave some particulars by way of correcting the new 'Dictionary of American Biography.'

A notable work on 'Kentucky Jurisprudence,' by Lewis N. Dembitz of the Louisville bar, is in the press of John P. Morton & Co. Its aim is to dwell on the peculiarities of Kentucky law, and to pass over those points in which it has made no departure from the common course of American law. The practitioner rather than the student has been in the author's view.

Still another biographical series looms up, "American Reformers," edited by Carlos Martyn, D.D., and published by Funk & Wagnalls. It will consist of twelve volumes, the editor leading off with Wendell Phillips, and also reserving to himself William E. Dodge and John B. Gough. Mr. F. B. Sanborn will write the life of Horace Mann; Mr. W. S. Kennedy that of Whittier, etc.

The poems of the late Mrs. Anna Holyoke Howard will be issued in book form in the spring. A sketch of her life and work will meanwhile appear in the December number of the *Young Woman's Magazine* (Brattleboro, Vt.).

The Albany Book Co. announce, to appear next month, 'An Experiment in Marriage,' by Charles J. Bellamy.

A reissue, by Gebbie & Co., Philadelphia, of Thomas Bridges's 'Burlesque Translation of Homer's Iliad,' originally published in 1762, is an event little to be expected; but the gross passages of the original, which were adapted to a very primitive taste, have been modified or starred so that the volume is decent in language. The editor, George A. Smith, has had little difficulty in making the work presentable, and he has reproduced with it the odd comic cuts which accompanied the 1797 edition. The volume retains a place among the curiosities of a classical library, but its humor is of a sort which scarcely appeals to a refined taste.

The same publisher and editor send us a 'Compendium and Concordance of the Complete Works of Shakspere; also, an Index of every Character in the Dramas and where they Appear.' Thirty-seven outline drawings accompany the text. The plan of the volume, which is both handy and useful for ready reference, is to give *seriatim* an account of the sources and plot of each play, such as one might look over hastily to refresh the memory before going to the theatre. This division is followed by a "Concordance of Familiar Gems," more than a hundred pages in length, arranged by catchwords; and an index to the quotations and one also to the characters of Shakspere are added. The style and type of the volume are excellent.

The Spenser Society begins its new series for the twenty-first year with a reprint of the 1622 edition of Drayton's 'Polyolbion,' Part I., of the execution of which it is superfluous to say that no pains are spared to make the volume as excellent typographically as is possible. The publications of this Society for the past twenty years have been of great value to students to whom originals are inaccessible, and have not been without influence on the literary taste of scholars. In adding this great monument of a past literary age to the list, the Society gives proof of the spirit in which the new series will be conducted, and affords matter for congratulation that its labors are not to end.

The author of 'English Idyls' (London: Sampson Low & Co.) is favorably known by the volumes of these writings which have previously been accompanied by photo-etchings, and which, by picture and text, have made a peculiar, original, and artistic view of English rural life, particularly in the Norfolk Broads, very attractive. Here we have text without the pictures, and are sensible only of a strange literary quality, which in some cases suffers from a pastoral blight in the language, but in others is exceedingly direct and fresh. Something of Arcadian distance, nevertheless, hangs over the whole, and makes one suspect even its most truthful realism. The book is entirely out of the ordinary—prose-poetry—and, for the philologist, it imbeds a number of provincial phrases, and for the student of folk-lore a few sailor superstitions, which have an extra-literary interest. Among the rest we notice the belief among old fishermen of the east coast that they turn into gulls when they die, yet they had no objection to killing them. "They hev been dead oncet, they hev been on earth oncet, and we hev got quite enough old men now." The children become kittiwakes, and the women don't come back at all. Several curious matters like this give a kind of salt to the poetic or rustic subject.

A new selection from the 'Letters of Horace Walpole' (G. P. Putnam's Sons), edited by Charles Duke Yonge, with several excellent portraits, in two finely bound and printed library volumes, brings this entertaining but voluminous correspondent within reach of the ordinary reader's leisure. The selection has been made with due regard to the various aspects of the whole body of letters, of which the range is wide, and also with a view to displaying the character of the writer. The political portion is more full than is necessary for an American reader, but not really disproportionate, all things considered. It would have been as well, we think, if the editor had given something more in the way of information with regard to the persons addressed, so that the reader might more easily reconstruct the social environment of the author.

In 'The Second Year of the Lookabout Club,' by Mary E. Bamford (Boston: D. Lothrop Co.), which one might call the club's second annual report, the reputation of the author, as a teacher of sound science and the art of seeing things, is well maintained, and the youthful audience for whom the book is intended will find no lack of interest in the manner or of profit in the matter of Miss Bamford's attractively illustrated volume.

The Washington Life Insurance Company of this city has published elaborate actuarial and medical statistics covering twenty-five years, with an historical sketch. Although, regardless of their conventional reputation, figures will lie, especially when in each other's society, these teach some interesting lessons. We have only space for one of them, the relation of weight to height in consumption. Out of 2,000 deaths, where 353 (or 17.65 per cent.) were from that disease, in 750 cases the weight was above the standard when insured, and of these only 41, or 5.47 per cent., proved consumptive, while of 560 at the standard 100 (or 17.86 per cent.), and of 690 below the standard 212 (or 30.72 per cent.), thus died.

The most tasteful of the not purely decorative calendars that have come to us is the 'Authors' Calendar,' issued by Greenough, Hopkins & Cushing, Boston. The authors who furnish the extracts for the first two leaves are Robert Browning and Martin Farquhar Tupper, both among the dead of the dying year.

Of the illuminated kind of calendars, that called 'The Calendar of the Seasons,' in four leaves, each containing a pleasing water-color design of child-life, by Maud Humphrey, is to be praised (Frederick A. Stokes & Bro.); but dainty ugliness is the only term to apply to the "Sunter Calendar," which comes to us from the same firm. Their 'America' ("My Country, 'tis of Thee") is illustrated with typical American landscape in chromo, and offers some pretty bits, not always in happy juxtaposition. The music of the hymn is appended. Finally, we can mention as above the average, and still from the same source, Maud Humphrey's 'Babes of the Nations,' with pleasing colored plates accompanied by verses by Miss Edith M. Thomas.

The late Philip H. Welch had a genius for producing what we may call bright legends for comic illustration. They were not always thus illustrated, but his untimely death has led his brother humorists with the pencil to prepare a memorial volume of quips, published and unpublished, from his pen, and to contribute appropriate designs (Charles Scribner's Sons). The volume, 'Said in Fun,' thus possesses a double interest, and the royalties on the sales will go to the fund for the benefit of Mr. Welch's widow and children.

From C. Klackner, 5 East Seventeenth Street, New York, we receive a significant engraving on wood, by Miss C. A. Powell, after a fresco, "The Resurrection," by John La Farge, in St. Thomas's Church in this city. Together with the decorative proscenic frame designed by Miss Powell herself, the block measures 10x12 inches. The rendering is full of color, and is very successful in its treatment of the foliage and the half-light, half-gloom of the picture. The edition is limited to 150 copies, printed on Japan paper and signed. We have called the engraving significant not only because of its technical merits, but because the effort to bring the highest products of our American school of wood-engraving into competition with etchings and steel engravings deserves to be noticed and encouraged in every way. Miss Powell was preceded some years ago by Mr. Closson in Boston, with a charming cut of a little girl on a bearskin rug, and still more lately by Mr. G. Kruell of East Orange, N. J., in two masterly portraits of Darwin, of which we shall speak more particularly hereafter. No one can doubt that these specimens of Bewick's art will be prized increasingly as time goes on, or that they are worthy of a place in any cabinet of engraving.

In the November number of the *Centralblatt für Bibliothekswesen*, C. Haeberlin begins a series of contributions to the knowledge of ancient libraries and methods of book production. The first paper is devoted to a minute and careful study of the pre-Alexandrian editions of Homer. The remaining contents of the number consist of a paper on Belgian libraries, by V. Chauvin, several book reviews, and the usual library notes and news.

The Boston Book Co. has for sale a few copies of the remarkable facsimile of the 'Vestgöta Lagbok' noticed by us a short time since. We ought then to have mentioned the names of the editors of this difficult and highly successful undertaking, namely, Mr. Algernon Börtzell and Harald Wieselgren of the Royal Library of Stockholm.

At the next annual convention of the Modern Language Association of America, to be held at Harvard University on December 26, 27, and 28, President Charles W. Eliot will give an address of welcome to the delegates, and this will be followed by an address by James Russell Lowell, President of the Association. The following are some of the papers of more general interest to be presented at the different sessions: "Independent Literary Judgments" (Prof. Hunt, Princeton); "Russian Animal Folk-lore compared with that of the West" (Prof. Gerber, Earlham College); "The Saga of Walter

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of Aquitaine" (Dr. Learned, Johns Hopkins); "Scandinavian Lexicography" (Dr. Dodge, Columbia); "A Forerunner of Bunyan in the Twelfth Century" (Prof. Francke, Harvard); "The Pronunciation of Fredericksburg, Va." (Prof. Primer, Providence); "The Relation of Shakspere to 'The Taming of the Shrew'" (Prof. Tolman, Ripon College); "Use of the Negative by Chaucer" (Prof. Kent, University of Tennessee); "Reading in Modern Language Study" (Prof. Joynes, University of South Carolina); "Requirements in German and French for Admission to College" (Prof. Fay, Tufts College); "Some Elizabethan Verse Critics" (Prof. Schelling, University of Pennsylvania); "A Tyrolese Passion-Play of the Middle Ages" (Prof. Schmidt-Wartenberg, University of Deseret). Prof. A. Melville Bell will preside and deliver an address at a special meeting of the Phonetic Section, when several technical papers will be read.

The American Historical Association will hold its sixth annual meeting on December 28–31, 1889, in Washington. The evening sessions will be in the lecture-room of the Columbian University. The morning sessions will be in the lecture-room of the National Museum, by permission of the Board of Regents of the Smithsonian Institution. The headquarters of the Association will be at the Arlington.

—The Philadelphia *Press* says that, years ago, when Thomas Hughes was in this country, the head of the house of Lippincott showed him over the Philadelphia establishment, the visit coming to an end with this *contretemps:* "'Now, Mr. Hughes, I want to show you one of our greatest publications, "Allibone's Dictionary." It contains some information about every author of any account in England and America. Now let us see, for example, what it says about Mr. Thomas Hughes.' So he turned to H, and, lo! the name of the author of 'Tom Brown's School Days' was not there." As this story is going the rounds of the press, it is likely to bring some undeserved discredit on Mr. Allibone. His Dictionary only professed to include "the first half of the nineteenth century"; and Mr. Hughes's first book, 'Tom Brown's School Days,' belongs to the second half. It was published in 1857, and published anonymously too, so that even if Mr. Allibone had intended to include books issued up to the date of his own issue (1858), he could not be expected to have got in Mr. Hughes's.

—Fifty-eight years ago the first steps were taken in Boston to form a society to promote the immediate abolition of slavery, which was actually launched with the new year (1832) by the concurrence of twelve men, very deficient in this world's goods, and of little or no repute with the respectable classes of society. Three of them were practical printers, and four were editors or publishers of papers. In both these categories belonged Oliver Johnson, who died in Brooklyn on December 10, and was the last survivor of the little group of apostles of the new agitation. The alliance between the then editor of the *Christian Soldier* and the editor of the *Liberator* (both papers saw the light in January, 1831), continued unbroken through the thirty-five years of stern conflict with hostile public sentiment and all the repressive and persecuting force of the Slave Power. When Garrison died, no one more naturally than Mr. Johnson became his biographer and posthumous defender; and the date on which the latter expired was, by a coincidence as pleasing as it was striking, the eighty-fourth anniversary of the birth of the elder abolitionist. Mr. Johnson had another peculiar distinction: he edited in turn nearly all the anti-slavery newspapers, the *Liberator* not excepted, ending with the organ of the American Anti-Slavery Society, the *National A. S. Standard* in this city, where his residence was thus finally fixed. He rendered in this way a very notable service to the cause of emancipation, and was distinguished for his good sense, good temper, and good judgment. He also occasionally took the field as a lecturer. Like most of his colleagues, he served for scanty wages in a spirit of self-sacrifice, and with the greatest fidelity to principle. While temporarily editing the *Liberator*, he was the innocent occasion of the explosion of sectarian jealousy of Garrison which ended in the memorable schism of the abolitionists in 1840, with important consequences for the nascent Liberty party.

— Like Mr. Garrison, Mr. Johnson withdrew from the anti-slavery organization and agitation after the close of the war and the abolition of slavery. He resumed an old connection with the *Tribune*, for whose founder he had a warm friendship; and was also, as a friend of Henry Ward Beecher and Theodore Tilton, associated with them in the editing of the *Independent* and the *Christian Union*. Other journalistic engagements could also be enumerated, and it may be said that from the days of his apprenticeship to his death at the age of eighty, Mr. Johnson was never out of touch with the printing-office. His theological belief passed from the strictest Calvinism to a species of Quakerism, and he became one of the founders of the so-called Progressive Friends at Longwood, Penn., where his remains have been interred. Mr. Johnson was born of Massachusetts parents in Vermont, on December 27, 1809. By his first wife, Mary Ann White, he had no children. His second wife, who survives him, with one daughter, is a daughter of the late Rev. J. S. C. Abbott.

—Although under one cover, the second number of the third volume of the *Journal of Morphology*, September, 1889, really represents two substantial treatises of 100 to 160 pages each, with many plates and figures in the text, the one embryological, the other palæontological, both full of original matter and most creditable to the writers and the editor. W. M. Wheeler's "Embryology of *Blatta Germanica* and *Doryphora decemlineata*" might not be recognized by all as a "study of the development of the cockroach and potato beetle." "Easily obtained at all seasons, of convenient size for dissection, and being but slightly modified descendants of the oldest [known] insects of geological time," the cockroaches have attracted the attention of no less than twenty investigators. The potato-beetle, on the contrary, "has not been studied heretofore from an ontogenetic standpoint; it is surprising that so common an insect, and one whose eggs present such advantages for embryological study, should have been overlooked." Probably thousands of farmers and city householders will not wait to master the somewhat technical details of the present article before wishing that its author might require unlimited numbers of both insects. Yet parts of the paper are not only nearly free from the not yet commonly understood terms of the "new embryology," but both interesting and important—*e. g.*, the description (pp. 299-302) of the remarkable oviposition of *Blatta*, the eggs coming from the right and left ovaries in regular alternation, and crossing to the opposite side of the capsule, and the account (p. 324) of experiments showing that, with this insect, "the force of gravitation has no perceptible effect upon the development of the eggs." The suggestion (p. 338) that two prior observers may have mistaken a minute ridge for a groove, illustrates Goodsir's dictum to students to train their eyes and faculties well upon visible parts before employing the microscope.

— Mr. Wheeler's remark on p. 347, that a certain hypothesis has at least the merit of utilizing the facts near at hand, and that it "might be called a *mechanical* explanation," leads naturally to the consideration of Prof. Cope's richly illustrated discussion of "The Mechanical Causes of the Development of the Hard Parts of the Mammalia." Did space permit, the introductory (historical) sketch might well be quoted entire. Lamarck ascribed some modifications of structure to the motions of the organic being. Spencer specified the effect of flexure in producing segmentation of the vertebral column. Cope, in 1871, insisted on the importance of motion in determining growth, and in 1872 declared that "growth-force must develop extent in the direction of least resistance, and density on the side of greatest resistance." Subsequently the subject has been elaborated in different aspects by the author and by Ryder, whose observations, and those of Harrison Allen, are cordially acknowledged. The keynote of the writer's view is struck in the following words from p. 139: "Thanks to vertebrate palæontology, we are now in possession of the [presumed] phylogeny of most of the lines of mammalian descent. . . . The more my attention has been directed, the more convinced I have become that, in the language of Lamarck, it is the habit that has given rise to the structures of animals, and not the structures which have forced animals to adopt their special habits." This is an important and suggestive aspect of the evolution doctrine, and may commend the doctrine itself to some who have forsaken the idea of direct creative interference, and welcome all evidence of secondary causes. Prof. Cope presents his facts and arguments with his usual force and with perhaps more than usual candor. There are frequent admissions of doubt and difficulty in special cases, *e. g.*, as to the long fifth toe of seals (p. 158), "the mechanical history of the human great toe" (p. 162, although a partial explanation is offered on p. 173), and the characteristics of the human carpus (p. 176). He does not, however, seem to realize the extent of his demand upon the reader's evolutionary faith in assuming that the elongation of the limbs may be due to *either* "impact or longitudinal strain; . . . the one acting by compression in the direction of the length of the bone (walking animals), the other by stretching (climbing forms)." Some doubting Thomas on the side of special creation or of evolution from other than mechanical causes might well object to this, as an example of the *obscurum per obscurius* to which the author objects—in other words, as an ascription of causative value to mere antecedents or even concomitants—*post* [or *cum*] *hoc, non ergo propter hoc*—and as an evidence that discussions morphological are not always strictly logical. Actual errors are hardly to be expected from such a writer in such a journal, but on p. 202 it seems to be implied that the muzzle is short, not only in the bull-dog, but also in the other domestic varieties and in the wild Canidæ, all of which are supposed to employ the canine teeth for prehension. The interesting suggestion on p. 203 that the mechanical cause of the peculiar direction of the nasal cavity in whales and porpoises is the constant pressure of a column of water, does not accord with the common belief that the pressure is at most intermittent, and that the material is mainly vaporized

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breath with perhaps a slight admixture of water.

—A recent discussion in the Parisian *Intermédiaire* reminds one of the battle between the Big-endians and Little-endians as to which end of an egg should be broken. In his last comedy, "Marquise," Sardou maintains that a gentleman, escorting a lady either from table or from church, should offer her his arm, and always the left arm. The reason he gives is, that a man should keep his right arm at liberty, that if needful he may be able to give a cuff to any person who does not make way for the lady, or for the more peaceable purpose of opening a door which may bar her passage. A writer in *L'Intermédiaire* states this doctrine, but contends that it ignores a distinction, delicate indeed, but which ought by no means to be disregarded. In ordinary cases he admits that the left arm should be offered by an escort, and that for Sardou's reasons. In church, however, and in a salon, he holds that the *right* arm ought to be tendered. In churches and salons there is no danger, and a man ought not by his gestures or attitudes to show himself apprehensive. In a festive hall, accordingly, giving a lady one's left arm argues a suspicious temper, and may be taken as an insult by a supersensitive host. The Big-and-Little-endian feud was compromised by cleaving the egg in the middle. It is not clear that the etiquette of right and left arms can be so easily settled. In treating this matter *L'Intermédiaire* mentions an odd custom now in vogue on the French stage. At the Opéra a man never offers his arm or hand to a queen or princess, but presents to her a doubled fist (*le poing fermé*).

PENNELL ON PEN DRAWING.

Pen Drawing and Pen Draughtsmen, Their Work and their Methods: a Study of the Art To-day with Technical Suggestions. By Joseph Pennell. Macmillan & Co. 1889. Large 4to, pp. xxiv-318.

NOTHING could show more curiously than does this book the advantages and disadvantages of artistic criticism of art; nothing could exhibit more completely the qualities and defects of the artist turned critic. The introduction opens with the statement that "Only the writing on art by one who has technical knowledge of it is of practical value," and, scattered through the pages, there are many contemptuous flings at "a certain class of writers on art" whose "ignorance of the technique of any art is only equalled by their ability to write on it." No doubt the sneer is often justified, yet of many of the artists who make it it would hardly be too much to say that "their knowledge of their subject is only equalled by their inability to write clearly of it." The true critic, who knows his art and can tell what he knows, is a rare bird in the land, and when we have not a Fromentin we must generally choose between the clear exposition of the writer's little knowledge and the confused statement of the artist's learning. No doubt the latter is to be preferred by the student, but no doubt the former will be more appreciated by the public.

From the side of technical knowledge no one could be better equipped for writing of pen drawing than Mr. Pennell. He is himself a pen draughtsman of distinction, and he has made a thorough study of his subject. Assuredly he knows a good drawing when he sees it, and knows why it is good, knows in what the modern progress of the art consists, and how modern pen drawing differs from the ancient; but he does not succeed in making these things plain to his reader. He does not think with precision or write with method, and what he has to tell us must be picked out here and there amidst rambling remarks and endless repetitions.

His first chapter is on "Pen Drawing in the Past," and is intended to show the technical advance of modern pen drawing beyond that of the old masters; but he really gives us no help towards seeing in what the advance consists. He places the old and new drawings side by side, and assures us that the newer is the better; why, we must find out for ourselves. When he comes to his real subject, modern pen drawing, he has found no better method than to write detached notices and criticisms of each artist represented. The artists are roughly divided according to nationality, and that is all. Neither alphabetical, nor chronological, nor any other discoverable order is observed. Mr. Pennell's criticisms are often shrewd, often merely nugatory. They seem to have been written separately and put together afterwards, and he is always saying, "I have already said," when what he has already said may be a hundred pages further on; or, "I have remarked elsewhere," without giving any indication of where "elsewhere" may be. In the notice of Fortuny he gives great and deserved praise to that master as the founder of a new school of draughtsmen, but he makes no explanation of what constituted Fortuny's innovation. (We may say, briefly, that it was the substitution of the *spot* for the line, the using of lines to indicate the masses of shadow, and the suppression, to a great extent, of outline.)

After more than two hundred pages of these notices, we come to chapters on "Architectural Pen Drawing," "Pen Drawing for Book Decoration," "Technical Suggestions," etc.; and here, at last, one hopes to find some clear statement of what is good or bad in methods, of what a draughtsman with the pen should draw, and how he should draw it, of the qualities of things expressible by the pen, of the difference between intelligent and unintelligent use of line. Alas! one finds little more than directions as to what ink and paper to choose, and a recipe for "spatter work"!

Yet Mr. Pennell certainly began to write this book with a view to setting forth a body of doctrine, and, by means of much piecing together of scattered expressions, it is possible to find out what that body of doctrine is. The things Mr. Pennell deemed it worth while to say of pen drawing would seem to be these:

Pen drawing is a distinct art, with its own aims and methods, and should be confused with no other.

It is as worthy of serious treatment by artist and critic as any other form of art.

It has failed of serious consideration by the critics and the public because of the cheapness and universal diffusion of its results.

Its development as a separate art was nearly coincident with and largely dependent upon the invention of the various reproductive processes.

These processes allow more freedom to the artist, and reproduce his original work with less loss than any but the best engraving.

It is wrong to demand that the best engravers shall expend the time and labor necessary to painful reproduction of pen-and-ink work with a result no better than can be secured by a mechanical process in a tenth of the time.

The cheapness of illustration by process has, however, created a demand for it on the part of publishers which has resulted in a vast quantity of pen-and-ink work by men who either have no knowledge of art or no special fitness for pen drawing, and of pen-and-ink drawings of subjects not fitted for treatment by that vehicle.

The resulting monotony and badness of much contemporary illustration tend to increase the public contempt for the art of pen drawing, which the public takes to be a "cheap and nasty" method of illustration, and is a serious danger to the future of that art.

These propositions, which we take to be the fundamental ones of the book, we believe to be altogether true. That pen drawing is an art, and a beautiful art, capable at its best of results as lovely as those of etching or line engraving, though differing from them in quality, no one who has looked at some of the plates in this volume can deny. Neither can one fail to be convinced, by the wonderful variety of style and practice here shown, that the "monotony" of much modern illustration, which is so often complained of (and by this journal as often as by any one) is the result, not of the limitations imposed by "process" upon the individuality of the artist, but of the draughtsman's incompetence or unwise choice of subject matter. The old wood-engravers, when confined to facsimile, habitually "cut the blocks without the slightest feeling for the artist's work," or "when they did follow the original lines it was only because the artist drew expressly for them"; and the limitations imposed by the engraver were vastly greater than those of "process" reproduction, which only requires "a reasonably clean line, good ink, and white paper." The reason why so much modern work is bad is, that there is so much modern work. The number of men with a talent for pen drawing does not greatly vary, while the amount of work done vastly increases. Much of it, therefore, is done by men who are not artists, or are artists with no feeling for line, who are tempted to this method of work by the assurance of fidelity in the published result, or by competent pen draughtsmen who are asked by the publishers for pen drawings of subjects better fitted for treatment in tone. With the improvement of "process" reproduction of tone work, an artist who wishes to see his work published as he produced it will be no longer forced to work with the point, whether or not it is an implement suited to his idiosyncrasy, and meanwhile we may expect the gradual education of the public to understand and to demand good work, and to refuse bad.

It is a pity that the book which Mr. Pennell set out to write has not been written, for, as we have said, no one has a better equipment of technical knowledge for the task, and ample materials for it have been gathered. The book contains 158 drawings which are, for the most part, admirably selected and magnificently reproduced, either by process or photogravure, while some are printed from the wood block. It is to be regretted that the author's modesty has prevented his including any work by himself. One of his fine renderings of Gothic architecture would have been a valuable addition to the chapter on architectural drawing. The publishers have performed their part munificently, and the mechanical workmanship of the volume is nearly perfect. A feature worthy of all praise and of imitation is the exceptionally good list of drawings, with its full information of provenance, date, and manner of reproduction.

THE BEGINNINGS OF LANDSCAPE.

The Earlier English Water-Color Painters. By Cosmo Monkhouse. With fourteen engravings on copper and many other illustra-

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tions. London: Seeley & Co.; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1890.

Of many of the artists to whom this volume is devoted most of us know little, and, perhaps, care less. Not only their works but their very names are unknown outside of England. We think it likely that to most students of art, as, we confess, to us, their individuality has been a matter of indifference. The importance of the English water-color school of the end of the last century and the beginning of this is indubitable, for out of it came Constable and modern landscape; but most of us, outside of England, have been content to begin with Constable, and to leave the earlier men, with a few exceptions, to their obscurity.

This indifference Mr. Monkhouse is hardly likely to disturb. The reproductions he gives us are inferior, and may not do justice to the originals; but they certainly confirm one's impression that most of the art of the time was of a singularly mild and drawing-masterly type. These tinted drawings of "Gentlemen's Seats" and absurd "Compositions" are the beginnings of modern landscape painting, but they are about as interesting in themselves as a child's copy-books, and present such a dead level of insipidity that any care to distinguish them one from another is impossible. Nor does the text interest one much more. The qualities of brilliant description, delicate analysis, keenness of vision, strength of characterization, which in that wonderful book, 'L'Art du dix-huitième siècle,' by the brothers Goncourt, make us almost see the things described and appreciate the most subtle and imponderable qualities of evanescent trifles; which, dealing with men of hardly greater importance than these English water-color "draughtsmen" (in a sense, of *less* importance, for they are the men of a decadence, not the forerunners of a revolution), make of each a vivid, living personality—such qualities are conspicuous only by their absence from Mr. Monkhouse's pages. In short, his book is dry, we will not say dull.

One or two amusing glimpses we get of the methods of those days, like this of the teaching of Paul Sandby, "the father of the English school of water-colors": "His practice," we are told, "was to give the students an original drawing of his own to copy, providing them with an etching [*sic*] in outline of the subject. The trees, buildings, etc., were lined very finely, as with a very sharp pen, just as they were in the drawing itself"! An even more eccentric method of teaching, which can hardly have been general even then, is thus described:

"'Cozens [Alexander] dashed out upon several pieces of paper a series of accidental smudges and blots in black, brown, and gray, which, being floated on, he impressed again upon other paper; and, by the exercise of his fertile imagination, and a certain degree of ingenious coaxing, converted into romantic rocks, woods, towers, steeples, cottages, rivers, fields, and waterfalls. Blue and gray blots formed the mountains, clouds, and skies.' An improvement on this plan was to splash the paint first upon the bottoms of earthenware plates instead of paper, and to stamp impressions therefrom on sheets of damp paper. This method of instruction he described in a pamphlet called 'A New Method of Assisting the Invention in Drawing Original Loose Positions in Landscape.'"

The general method of the earlier men is described in a quotation from W. H. Pyne:

"Previous to the practice of Turner and Girtin, drawings were shadowed first entirely through, whatever their component parts—houses, cattle, trees, mountains, foregrounds, middlegrounds, and distances—all with black or gray, and these objects were afterwards stained or tinted, enriched and finished, as is now the custom to color prints."

Of course all the work described and illustrated in the book is not of this desperately primitive sort. John Robert Cozens and Girtin would seem to have been men of some real force and originality, of whom one would like to know more; Bonington will always be interesting for his influence upon Delacroix, if for nothing else; Blake was a man apart, whom, as he had no influence whatever on the course of modern art, we need not discuss here; with such men as De Wint, Copley Fielding, and David Cox one feels that modern landscape painting has fairly begun. Finally, there is Turner, and of him we perhaps know quite enough.

There are two chapters devoted to this singular genius: one, in the middle of the book, dealing with his work up to 1802, the year of Girtin's death and his own election to the Royal Academy; the other, the last chapter of all, dealing with his later work. Mr. Monkhouse's treatment of him is not particularly luminous, though he says some true things. Turner's reputation in England (and, to a certain extent, here also) is colossal, and, in most criticism that one sees, apart from Mr. Hamerton's, the only question seems to be how and for what he is to be lauded. Mr. Henley, in 'A Century of Artists,' informs us that a reaction against the excessive praise of Ruskin and others is now in progress in England, and that, in certain quarters, denunciation of Turner is as wholesale as the praise of him has been; but such denunciation has not, as yet, reached us here. Apparently our author's admiration is, though kept under some restraint, almost as unbounded as that of Mr. Ruskin himself. The illustrations give a better idea of Turner than the text, and for the last two in the book we are duly grateful. They are two drawings of Newcastle-on-Tyne, one made by Girtin, according to Mr. Monkhouse, for Walker's 'Itinerant,' "probably between 1790 and 1800," and the other made by Turner for the 'Rivers of England,' "within a year or two before 1824."

Turner's drawing is evidently founded upon Girtin's. We should judge it highly improbable that he took the pains to go to Newcastle himself. Here was Girtin's drawing to his hand, and it gave him quite material enough for the kind of fantasia he was in the habit of improvising. Everything in Turner's drawing is at least hinted at in Girtin's, but the way in which Girtin's plain record of fact is transformed into a gorgeous Turnerian nightmare (Mr. Monkhouse speaks of its "infernal majesty") is curious in the extreme. "Nightmare" is no exaggeration: Turner's city is like one seen in a troubled dream—luridly magnificent, but really impossible in every line. Repose is carefully eliminated, and mass is everywhere subdivided into an endless maze of confusing and benumbing detail; church spires are lifted to a Babel-like elevation; the bridge across the river becomes Cyclopean in its stride; everything is colossal, yet wavering and uncertain, like a city in the clouds at sunset—and, like such a city, one expects to see it dissolve and transform itself before one's eyes.

That this is the work of a strong imagination no one can deny; but whether or not it is that of a great or healthy imagination is a different question. To us the imagination of Turner seems an eminently morbid and—let us risk the word—theatrical one. His conception of art was scenic and spectacular; his mind was operatic. Many of his little vignettes seem like sketches for the scenery of a *féerie*, and he would have been the greatest scene-painter that ever lived. His natural endowment was great, his knowledge of nature profound; but his carelessness of truth was supreme, and his influence, wherever exercised, has been almost unmixedly for evil.

When all is done, one lays down the book, less with the feeling that one has learned to understand Constable in studying the school from which he came, than with an increased wonder that an art so simple and manly, yet so imaginative—an art with such possibilities for the future within it—should have arisen from such a school, and one is more ready than before to "begin with Constable" in one's private history of modern landscape.

Mr. Monkhouse's style, which is never brilliant and seldom precise, is sometimes slovenly in the extreme; and there occur, now and then, sentences which might serve for specimens of "English as she is wrote"; *e. g.*, "They soon formed a real and original school of landscape, and also to feel their strength as a body" (p. 65). The book is handsomely printed on fine paper, but, unless Mr. Monkhouse is even more careless as a writer than we give him the credit of being, the proof-reading has not been impeccable. We give him the benefit of the doubt in the phrase, "one of the best of this class of designer" (p. 20).

MORE HOLIDAY BOOKS.

Cathedrals and Abbeys in Great Britain and Ireland. With descriptive text by Richard Wheatley, D.D. Harper & Bros. Folio.

Flora's Feast: A Masque of Flowers. Penned and Pictured by Walter Crane. Cassell & Co. 1889.

Flowers of Paradise. Music, Verse, Design, and Illustration by Reginald Francis Hallward. Macmillan & Co.

Gondolas and Palaces. Facsimiles of Colored Photographs, etc., etc., accompanied by Selections from the Text by Charles Yriarte. Frederick Stokes & Bro. 1889.

The book which stands at the head of our list contains 272 pages, perhaps half of which are occupied with full-page or double-page illustrations. These are nearly all wood-cuts, and the few exceptions are process prints from pen drawings. Most of the woodcuts are of the old-fashioned sort, in which an attempt is made to give all the details that the scale of the drawing allows, and in which a full system of light and shade is employed. Of course, a very great deal of skill on the part of the artist and wood-engraver alike is required to make such engravings at all satisfactory. They are not, and can hardly be, very charming as works of art, as their inevitable fate is to be monotonous and tame in effect. The generally too strongly emphasized shadows marking the architectural details contrast in an unfortunate fashion with the lighter spaces between, and any attempt to give diversity by attempted effects of shade stealing across one end or the other of the façade, or the top or the base of a tower, is apt to give an appearance of artificiality, without any very special charm. Then there is also the difficulty caused by architectural members too minute to be rightly expressed, and which the engraver can only indicate by meaningless scrolls and zigzags; these are almost certain to offend the eye of one who cares for the building which is represented. So that altogether there are pitfalls in the way of the maker of large general drawings of architecture—pitfalls which only the very able artist can escape. It is obvious that such drawings are chiefly made nowadays by the free use of photographs, either directly from the photograph, and corresponding with it in all respects, as far as the engraver's skill can follow it, or

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worked up from photographs in cases where the general group has been drawn by the aid of the camera-lucida or in some other way. In some few cases, the work is very minute and delicate, and the architectural detail very closely followed, even to the sacrifice of any scheme of light and shade. These are certainly the most attractive. The architectural detail itself, or the black lines that represent it, gives variety enough to the design. The perspective lines, so strongly emphasized in all architectural compositions, prevent any sense of flatness; and chiaro-oscuro, in the ordinary sense, is not missed, as it might otherwise be. Thus, we think the little drawing of Salisbury Cathedral on the uppermost corner of the first plate in this book is one of the most valuable pictures which it contains. The view of St. Patrick's Cathedral, Dublin, in its tranquillity and absence of visible effort, is also interesting. The building, being very plain, without much variety in the way of niche or window-tracery, lends itself to the simple treatment adopted, and the picture is one of the pleasantest. Apart from these, and others like them, Mr. Hughson Hawley's large drawings are perhaps the most agreeable in the book.

The text consists of a series of notices of the cathedrals represented in the cuts, and, furthermore, of an introductory essay on the cathedral system. This essay contains the usual amusing attempt to show that English Gothic architecture rivals French on the whole, and excels in at least as many points as it yields to it. It gives us, also, the commonplace statements about the rise and the decline of Gothic architecture, as that the descent from its climax of excellence was "swift and certain," and that St. Paul's is the English "cathedral specimen" of the Renaissance style of architecture, which style is said to be "a revival of the Roman antique in triumphal arches, baths, and other edifices, but not of temple or church construction," and to be furthermore "a blending of different styles, which never acquired popularity with the English people." Such blundering treatment of the subject as is shown here is not universally characteristic, either of this essay or of the separate papers on the different cathedrals; for in dealing with each separate edifice or each separate branch of the subject, good authorities are to be had, and these authorities the author has known how to use. So far as we have examined the accounts of the origin, the first building, the different enlargements and varied fortunes of each cathedral, we have found the text satisfactory. It is not very full, and perhaps too ambitious an attempt is made to include everything in a small compass—history, legend, and tradition, analysis of the architecture, and detailed account of the monuments, etc., contained in each structure. It is, in short, a guide-book in little, and contains too great a variety of theme for adequate treatment of any department. The whole text, however, is a sufficient companion to the large plates, to display which is the primary object of this book; and it certainly may have value for persons not otherwise supplied with books on the church architecture of England.

'Flora's Feast' consists of forty pages of colored illustrations with verses forming a part of the design, the whole lithographed together, and printed in black lines, and in two or three colors for each page. The flowers of the year succeed one another in order. Each ptate is devoted to one or two flowers, and has generally one distich describing them. The designs themselves embody a certain personification of each plant, usually by representing a young maiden, or perhaps what the author would call a nymph, dressed in the petals, the calyx, the leaves, or some other part of the flower in question. Thus page 19 gives us

> "The little lilies of the vale,
> White ladies, delicate and pale,"

and the picture represents two maidens, drawing around themselves as a sort of outer garment a cloak of the large, enveloping green leaves of the plant, while they bend over their heads the flexible stems with their white bells. The idea of personifying the flowers in this way is not very happy. A serious effort has to be made to conceive of the plant as in any way embodied in the girl or young man who is masquerading in its spoils. The line, "The scarlet poppy-head ablaze," is illustrated by a black drum-major and black drummer, each of them in fantastic uniform, as if of the British army in some unknown period of the past, but the hats formed of the spreading blossoms; and, in order to account for the presence of the blossoms, and to give some idea of the whole plant, the drum-major has to carry the stem of the poppy as if it were his staff of office. Nor is this the most far-fetched of the fancies in the book. Perhaps the "white-flowered thorn," represented as a knight in polished armor, with a spiked mace, a crest of radiating points and exaggerated knee and elbow plates with thorny terminations, is the most disagreeable of all. But it remains to be said that the pictures have a great deal of the grace of Mr. Crane's work, and that the book is unusual in character, and, therefore, fitted to be a gratification to those who seek many Christmas gifts. It is printed on one side only of the paper, which is left folded at the edges, as many Japanese books are made, causing the reader inevitably to cut at least one of the sheets that he is not meant to cut, before he discovers the system on which the book is constructed.

'Flowers of Paradise' has its charm, which is partly in the simpler designs, printed in a brilliant red on a pretty, cream-colored paper, and partly in the unusual freedom of gesture in the more ambitious figure subjects. There are unnumbered shortcomings in the drawing, which is nowhere to be praised unreservedly; but in spite of this there is that other and not very common success that the children move and rest, cling to their mother's neck and climb her knees, with a certain reality of movement which is pleasant to see. The verse seems very unsatisfactory and, indeed, meaningless, until it is tried with its music, that fourth production of the author. Then it appears to be as sensible as other "words written for music," and lends itself readily to the simple melodies.

The book on Venice contains four colored prints of views in that city, which are all of them accurate, in their veracity of copies of photographs, but hideous in their violently contrasting hues. Printed with the text there are also small pictures, in the nature of vignettes, of fragments of the architecture of Venice. They are extremely inaccurate in every possible way. The text purports to be selected from the English translation of Yriarte's 'Venice,' and is so far as a certain value; but the extracts are brief and detached.

ADAMS'S ADMINISTRATION OF JEFFERSON.—II.

History of the United States of America during the First Administration of Thomas Jefferson. By Henry Adams. 2 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1889.

It is difficult to overestimate the far-reaching effects of the Louisiana purchase on the Government and on the people of the United States. Some of these effects were foreseen at the time, as, for instance, when Livingston wrote that it extricated the United States from further complicity with the wars and intrigues of either France or England; that it enabled our country to take a great stride towards substantial independence in its territorial and in its economical relations; and that consequently it strengthened the bonds of the Union by giving an "increased parity of interests" to the several parts which composed it. The Union which before had been "voluntary" became now, as the late Alexander Johnston has remarked, a "fixed fact" planted in the physical geography of the country. And this tremendous change in our political geography wrought a natural change in the entire temperature of the national mind.

Mr. Adams is keenly alive to this great transformation, but he ascribes it chiefly to the new moods begotten in the heart and life of the nation by the questionable modes of the acquisition, and by the questionable measures which attended the incorporation of Louisiana in our political system. If the United States ever entered on the path which ultimately led (as the Southern States complained on the eve of secession) to "a consolidated democracy" seated in Washington, it entered on that path, he thinks, when it made, virtually, "a new Constitution and a Government of sovereign powers" by annexing Louisiana to the Union in a way admitted by Jefferson to be unconstitutional. Such an experience, he says, was "final" against all attempts to "restrain the Government from doing whatever the majority should think necessary."

There is doubtless a measure of truth in this view, but it must be remembered that to the great mass of the chosen guides of the American people at that time it did not seem so clear that the acquisition was unconstitutional. Why should the scrupulosity on this point of men like Jefferson and John Quincy Adams outweigh the contrary convictions of "strict constructionists" like John Taylor of Caroline and John Breckinridge of Kentucky, or the contrary admissions of Federalists like Gouverneur Morris and John Adams? If the incorporation of Louisiana into our Federal system wrought a change in the temper and constitution of the national mind (and we think it did), the transformation was due to a natural redistribution and recomposition of social elements and forces in the United States—to a slow and natural process of political endosmose, so to speak—and not to any supposed violence done to the Constitution in the forms of the acquisition or in the modes of governing Louisiana as a Territory. When the civil war came, it was seen that the acquisition of Louisiana had wrought, in the highest of all senses, for a "parity of interests" between the North and South, by putting its weights in the scale of Freedom as well as of Union. It seems to Mr. Adams that, at bottom, the doctrines of both the Federalists and Republicans in the matter of Louisiana's annexation "were fatal to the old status of the Union." "The Federalist theory," he says, "was one of empire, the Republican was one of assimilation." The difference was characteristic of the respective parties, and since the "old status" had to die, according to Mr. Adams, let us at least rejoice that the pall was borne by men who believed in the popular rather than in the imperial traditions of civil government.

Mr. Adams dispenses his justice to both the Federalist and the Republican party with an equal hand. He delights not in either. But we could wish that he had laid a little more emphasis on that remarkable debate in which the Federalist leaders sought, at the first "crisis" of the Louisiana question, to impale Jef-

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ferson on the "horns of a political dilemma," as Mr. Adams justly describes it. We refer to the debate which arose in Congress when official notice had to be taken of the French occupation at New Orleans. That debate should not have been dismissed with a single brief sentence. The statement that "Ross of Pennsylvania, White of Delaware, and Gouverneur Morris of New York, assailed the Administration for the feebleness of its measures" in prospect of the French domination of Louisiana, hardly measures the gravity of the Federalist attitude. These Senators urged, with shrill vociferation of speech, the immediate military seizure of the territory in question, without waiting for the slow processes of a peaceful diplomacy. They sought to put Jefferson "in a hole," to use the slang locution of our modern politics. "Plant yourselves on the river, fortify the banks, invite those who have an interest at stake to defend it, do justice to yourselves, . . . and leave the event to Him who controls the fate of nations," exclaimed Ross. Jonathan Mason of Massachusetts (whose name is overlooked by Mr. Adams) welcomed aggressive measures because, if war came, we should have the navy of Great Britain on our side, and because necessity would combine with "wisest policy" to unite us with that country. Gouverneur Morris thought the Administration ought to have taken possession of New Orleans the instant Spain had violated our treaty rights by withdrawing "the right of deposit" secured to the Western States. Never was the political dice-box rattled more recklessly or ominously than by the Federalist leaders who played for high stakes in this huge game of politics.

The Republican leaders saw plainly enough the partisan motive of this fierce onset. It was hoped to array the Western States against the Administration, at the risk of provoking a foreign war. Yet they calmly met the onset by quoting Vattel and Burlamaqui against the "barbarism" of beginning war without first trying to preserve peace. Instead of Ross's resolutions, which proposed to call the militia of the Southern and Western States into active service at once, to the number of 50,000, the Jefferson majority in the Senate voted to raise 80,000 troops, to be summoned proportionately from all the States, whenever the President should judge it expedient. No sooner had this measure passed than Senator Hillhouse of Connecticut rose to express the hope that, in framing a bill for this purpose, the committee would limit by a geographical line the portion of the militia to be called out—adding significantly, that "he did not care whether the line should be the Potomac or the North River"! That remark had a grating sound as it fell on the ears of the Senate, and a Southern Senator, Robert Wright of Maryland, felt moved to say that liberal professions of zeal for the Western people were not worth much when they came from Senators who thought their militia "too well officered and disciplined" to move so far—for this was the strange reason given by Hillhouse for the wish he expressed.

This ill-omened observation of the distinguished Senator from Connecticut—an *obiter dictum* made early in the year 1803—naturally leads us to the interesting chapter in which Mr. Adams discusses the "conspiracy" framed by certain Federalist leaders in 1804 for a dissolution of the Union. There is perhaps nothing in this chapter that will be absolutely new to readers familiar with the literature of the topic, especially with the author's "New England Federalism," the Life of Plumer, and Lodge's Life of Cabot. But the evidence on the subject is here brought within a compact compass. It could have been enlarged and corroborated by much evidence drawn from other quarters—particularly from the newspapers of the time, as we shall briefly show.

It has been common to suppose that the "conspiracy" was confined to a secret cabal of New England Senators and members of the House of Representatives in Washington at that date. Mr. Cabot Lodge says that the plan of separation from the South "emanated entirely" from them. But reasons for a separation from the South had been propounded in New England long before the year 1804. As early as 1796 a disunion propaganda was set on foot in Connecticut. A series of most remarkable essays, signed "Pelham" and "Gustavus," was published in the Hartford *Courant* from 1796 to 1798, for the avowed purpose of convincing the New England States that they could save society and Christianity from impending destruction only by an early secession from the slaveholding States and from the Jeffersonian Democracy. The Hartford poets of the "Echo" and the "Spring-House" joined ready chorus with these prose manifestoes. Mr. Adams is entirely correct when he says that in the year 1800 the sense of nationality was less active in Connecticut than it had been ten or twenty or even thirty years before. New England clericalism and New England culture were alike hostile, at that date, to "democracy," and in this way the "best" elements of society became dangerous to the safety of the Union. As the democratic tide rose higher and higher, men of light and leading among the New England Federalists were more and more inclined to favor "the policy of at least saving New England," and differed from their representatives in Washington only as to questions of times and modes for initiating wise proceedings to that end.

Not that all these men joined the "conspiracy" of 1804. Very far from it. But they all felt that something must be done to save the New England civilization, because it was in peril and because it was worth saving. It is not to be supposed that the "conspirators" addressed themselves to their task with gayety of heart. On the contrary, Mr. Adams well expresses the exact truth when he says that it was "despair"—despair of otherwise saving the social, moral, and religious order—which drove the foremost of these leaders into a privy conspiracy. As it was a part of the plot that the State of New York should be the centre of the confederacy, Timothy Pickering and Roger Griswold were commissioned to sound Aaron Burr in order to bring that crafty politician into the secret. The defeat of Burr's candidature at the election for Governor of the State of New York in 1804 exploded the ill-assorted combination. But that the reader may see what was "in the air" at Boston before the explosion came, we here reproduce a few of the "set toasts" offered at a great Federalist banquet given at Concert Hall in that city on the 24th of April, 1804 (only a day before the New York election), in honor of Christopher Gore. The toasts ran as follows: "The Virginia Dominion: May it be limited by the Constitution or —by the Delaware." "May those who cause the dismemberment of the American Empire be alone subjected to its evils." Among "volunteer toasts," the following may be cited: "The Federal virtues are obliged to swarm from the seat of government: May they find a hive in the North." Or take the following "volunteer toast" in honor of Aaron Burr: "Aaron's rod: May it blossom in New York, and may Federalists be still and applaud while the great serpent swallows the less."

Readers of their Bibles who remember how Moses, at the brink of the Red Sea, commanded the Children of Israel to "stand still and see the salvation of the Lord," and how the rod of Aaron, when cast in the presence of Pharaoh, swallowed up all the serpent rods of the Egyptian magicians, will perceive that the Federalist chieftains present at that Boston banquet (there were a hundred and eighty of them—Harrison Gray Otis, General Lincoln, *et al.*) were wistfully looking to the "Mephistopheles of New York politics" as the anointed Moses or Aaron who should lead them out of the house of Virginian bondage. But the volunteer symposiarch had strangely forgot that the rod which blossomed in the Biblical story was not the same with the rod that swallowed serpents. Its bitter almonds were designed to be a testimony against rebellion; and though the rod of the New York Aaron never blossomed, it bore the bitterest fruits for the good and wise men who brandished it in the face of Jefferson. The news of Burr's overthrow in the New York election came, as we have said, only a few days later to dash all their plans and hopes to the ground. And a few months later all these plans and hopes were swept away by a new tide of emotions. The cabal was buried in the grave of Hamilton. He had set his face like a flint against the "conspiracy," and fell a victim to it in falling a victim to the balked ambition of Burr. So dense a cloud of obscurity soon closed over the "conspiracy" that, in the end, its very existence was evaporated into a myth, till John Quincy Adams came to show that the story had a solid nucleus of fact. But it never had any body in the heart of New England's "common people."

We have lingered so long on these great themes of Mr. Adams's history that we have left ourselves no room for comment on other important chapters in this work—the judiciary debate of 1802; the diplomatic tangle resulting from the claim to West Florida under the Louisiana Treaty; the Yazoo Claims; the impeachment trials of John Pickering and Samuel Chase; the dispute with Tripoli, fastening a war on the Administration which proclaimed that "peace was its passion"; the *sequelæ* of the Louisiana negotiation as it affected our relations with Spain; the "cordiality" with England, ending in the dinner-table "mortifications" of Anthony Merry; and, lastly, the hostile conspiracy formed around Jefferson (with small damage to his popularity) by New England Federalists, Louisiana creoles, and scheming adventurers under the supposed inspiration of Burr.

We observe that Mr. Adams sinks the famous (or infamous) "Resolutions of '98" under a flood of hostile criticism. We shall not undertake to pull up their drowned honor by the locks. *Non nostrum*, etc. But it may be questioned whether Jefferson should be historically responsible for the draft of the Kentucky Resolutions found among his private papers, and the existence of which was not known till the year 1832. It was thought such a hardship that Edward Peacham, in the times of James I. of England, should be convicted of treason because of "divers treasonable passages" in a sermon he had never preached, that the British judges refused to see him hanged for them. It was thought so hard and so criminal that Algernon Sidney should have been condemned and executed for "polemical writings" found among his papers that the Parliament of a later day rehabilitated his memory by a solemn act. Readers of Mme. de Sévigné's charming letters will remember the tears she sheds over Fouquet, who, in the time of Louis XIV., was condemned because of certain "re-

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corded thoughts" which he said he had jotted down as they came to him in the wars of the Fronde, but which he had never published or acted on in his conduct of affairs. Mr. Adams, however, thinks it no more than strictly just to hold Jefferson to an historical responsibility for the suppressed paper, on the theory that it represented the real logic of his ideas, whatever abatements he may have made, in practice, for purely prudential reasons. But this theory assumes the whole question in dispute as to the real significance of the resolutions. So thoroughly is Mr. Adams persuaded that the intent of both the Kentucky and the Virginia "resolutions of '98" was revolutionary, that he will not allow any credit to the Virginia Legislature for "softening" its series, by striking out the word "void" in its application to the Alien and Sedition Laws —and that, too, though the word "void" was struck out to negative the very implication which Mr. Adams sees in the manifesto. He says that though the Legislatures of both the States "softened" the language of their resolutions, it none the less remains to be said that in declaring certain laws of Congress "unconstitutional," it was "with the additional understanding that whatever was unconstitutional was void." Of course, if words struck out of these resolutions, and words never known to exist until more than thirty years after their adoption, are to be read just the same between their lines, then there is no hope of saving these ill-famed documents. We decline to hold a brief for the defence of the miscreant declarations, but is it necessary to put them on the rack before they are handed over to the executioners?

We could wish that Mr. Adams, in casually referring to the fact that Jefferson removed Edward Livingston from office "for failing to account for thirty thousand dollars due to the United States Treasury," had bethought him to add that the defalcation arose from Livingston's misplaced confidence in a subordinate officer, and that the debt, with all the accrued interest, was fully discharged in the end. It would have seemed well to mention this fact even if Mr. Adams expects to do full justice to Livingston when he comes to treat on the famous "Batture controversy" which afterwards arose between that jurist and Mr. Jefferson.

It remains for us to say that the narrative style of Mr. Adams is vigorous in its grasp of materials, dignified in its tone, and correct in point of literary form. With the exception perhaps of an occasional slip in the use of the "nominative independent," this correctness of form is almost absolute, and such accuracy of style is in itself a guarantee for the truthfulness he has sought to bring to the substance of his narrative; for if the two are not identical, they are always close of kin. The proof-reading, too, has been careful, but on page 84 in the first volume there is an obvious misprint in the date of one of Cabot's letters, as cited in the text. It should be 1804, instead of 1840.

The Letters of the Duke of Wellington to Miss J. 1834-1851. Edited, with extracts from the Diary of the latter, by Christine Terhune Herrick. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1889.

THE singular episode in the last years of the Duke of Wellington which is revealed by these letters and accompanying papers, does not require any attention from the public. Miss J. was a young lady of good family who, after converting a murderer and restoring him to heaven from the gallows, became possessed of the idea that God, who she believed directed every trivial action of her life, intended her to convert the Duke. She was not aware at the time that he was the conqueror of Napoleon, but knew him only as a public man. She sent letters to him, and he, having the courteous habit of replying personally to all letters, acknowledged their receipt. What led him to call upon her, passes our surmise; but he did call, and was duly sermonized from the open Bible, to which his only reply was a declaration of love. Such is Miss J.'s account. He was then sixty-five years old and she twenty. The conduct of the Duke made Miss J. believe that God meant to glorify himself by making her the Duchess. She had fallen in love with the Duke. But, as the letters go on, it occurred to her that the Duke's intention had been misunderstood, and she wrote an indignant and most scornful letter, to which he replied by a formally worded note of apology. He afterwards pointed out to her that he could not make himself ridiculous by marrying her. The correspondence, far from stopping, continued for seventeen years, with an interval of four years. It is entirely tedious, except for the unconscious humor which occasionally results from the contact of two such persons. Miss J. indulged to the end her delusion that the Duke would at last be converted and marry her. She addresses him in affectionate terms, but at the same time loads him with complaints and with contempt for his worldly dignities. His signing his notes "W." and using a plain seal throw her into a fury of indignation; he then retreats to using the third person with all his titles, but this is more unsatisfactory; she rebukes him for burning her letters, thinking that it "was a sin in the sight of God to destroy epistles intended for his everlasting good"; she sends him letters for the Queen, warning her against the folly of confiding too much in her unregenerate counsellor, and asks him to deliver them, but he refuses. He, on his side, usually confines himself to acknowledging receipt of letters, or to interest in her health, or to information concerning his movements from place to place; time and again he suggests that she write no more, and more than once he, after some ridiculous complaint she makes of his conduct, refuses to write again, but to no purpose.

Her letters were frequent and long—one is mentioned of nineteen sides of paper; if they are not acknowledged, she sends copies of the previous ones with a new one; she, in the last resort, "defies" him in her diary. He, however, did not often call after the first years. One day, after one of these calls, he was reproached for "brushing up his chair to me with so much familiarity"—an incident which causes her to demand back a lock of her hair she had given him in exchange for one of his own. The Duke, upon this, presents his compliments very sharply, denies ever having had a lock of her hair, and winds up: "The Duke is not aware that he has been guilty of *presumption*, of *daring presumption*." At all events, he gave up calling. So the correspondence drags on; and the wonder is that the Duke exhibited so much consideration and patience towards the monomaniac.

It all ends at last, to cap the irony of it to the worldly-minded, in Miss J.'s losing her property and falling ill and appealing to the Duke for money. She did this very unwillingly and on the solicitation of her sister; but the Duke could not get her to say how much nor by what channel, and, though apparently willing to assist her, it all ended in an "indignant" letter. Just before his death he finally stopped writing. She afterwards came to the United States, where she died. The story has now "leaped to light," but whatever construction be put upon it, the whole affair seems too trivial and ridiculous to call for publication. The Duke was certainly kind and forbearing, and Miss J. an unusually impertinent and troublesome person.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Babes of the Nations. Frederick A. Stokes & Bro. $1.50.
Emmons, J. G. Mingled Memories: Poems. Brentano's.
For Love of Her: A Novel. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Haggard, H. R. Allan's Wife, and Other Tales. Harper & Bros.
Humphrey, Maud. Calendar of the Seasons. Frederick A. Stokes & Bro. 50 cents.
Lindner, Prof. G. A. Manual of Empirical Psychology. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.10.
Loftie, W. J. Westminster Abbey. Macmillan & Co. $7.50.
Manson, G. J. Ready for Business; or, Choosing an Occupation. Fowler & Wells. 75 cents.
Marsh, L. R. Glimpses in the Upper Spheres. I.—Voice of the Patriarchs. Buffalo: Chas. A. Wenborne. $1.50.
Mason, E. L. Hiero-Salem; The Vision of Peace. Boston: J. G. Cupples Co. $2.
Mason, E. T. Songs of Fairy Land. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Masson, D. Collected Writings of Thomas De Quincey. New and enlarged ed. Vol. I. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Mathers, Helen. Hedri, or Blind Justice. Frank F. Lovell & Co. 30 cents.
Mellick, A. D., jr. Story of an Old Farm; or, Life in New Jersey in the 18th Century. Plainfield, N. J.: The Author.
Mizora: A Prophecy. G. W. Dillingham.
Monkhouse, C. The Earlier English Water-color Painters. Macmillan & Co. $7.50.
Moore, G. Mike Fletcher. Minerva Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Munroe, K. The Golden Days of '49. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.25.
Musical Moments: Short Selections in Prose and Verse for Music Lovers. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Nichols, Laura D. Lotus Bay: A Summer on Cape Cod. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.50.
Palgrave, Prof. F. T. Treasury of Sacred Song. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Paris, P. Manual of Ancient Sculpture. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Pater, W. Appreciations. With an Essay on Style. Macmillan & Co. $1.75.
Peard, Frances M. The Blue Dragon. Thos. Whittaker.
Pennell, J. Pen Drawing and Pen Draughtsmen; Their Work and their Methods. A Study of the Art To-Day, with Technical Suggestions. Macmillan & Co.
Pollock, W. H., Grove, F. C., Prevost, C. Fencing, Boxing, Wrestling. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $3.50.
Postgate, J. P. Gai Valeri Catvlli Carmina. London: Geo. Bell & Sons.
Prentice, Prof. G. Wilbur Fisk. (American Religious Leaders.) Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Read, Opie P. Mrs. Annie Green. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Roe, E. P. Taken Alive, and Other Stories; with an Autobiography. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Russell, W. C. An Ocean Tragedy. Harper & Bros. 50 cents.
Sharp, J. C. Portraits of Friends. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Shakspere's Works. Bedford Edition. 12 vols. Frederick Warne & Co. $7.50.
Shigemi, S. A Japanese Boy. By Himself. New Haven, Conn.: E. B. Sheldon & Co.
Sill, E. R. The Hermitage, and Later Poems. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Smith, S. F. America: My Country, 'tis of Thee. Frederick A. Stokes & Bro. $1.50.
Stalker, Rev. J. Imago Christi: The Example of Jesus Christ. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.50.
Stockton, Frank R. What Might Have Been Expected. New ed. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
The Lamarks, or Marriageable Women. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke & Co. 50 cents.
The Lost Inca. Cassell & Co. 50 cents.
Tupper, Edith S. By Whose Hand? Willard Fracker Co. 35 cents.
Valentine, Mrs. The Old, Old Fairy Tales. Frederick Warne & Co. $3.
Ward, Anna L. Dictionary of Quotations in Prose. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $2.
Wells, D. A. Recent Economic Changes, and their Effect on the Production and Distribution of Wealth and the Well-being of Society. D. Appleton & Co.
Welch, P. H. Said in Fun. Chas. Scribner's Sons. $1.25.
Wentworth, W. Kibboo Ganey; or, The Lost Chief of the Copper Mountain. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Wesselhoeft, Lily F. Flipwing, the Spy. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Wheatley, H. B. How to Catalogue a Library. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.25.
Wheatley, Rev. R. Cathedrals and Abbeys in Great Britain and Ireland. Harper & Bros.
Whitby, Beatrice. The Awakening of Mary Fenwick. D. Appleton & Co.
White, J. W. Passages for Practice in Translation at Sight. Part IV. Greek. Boston: Ginn & Co. 90 cents.
Whitney, Dr. W. N. Concise Dictionary of the Principal Roads, Chief Towns and Villages of Japan. London: Trübner & Co.
Wickes, C. Illustrations of the Spires and Towers of the Mediæval Churches of England. Boston: Ticknor & Co.
Wiggin, Mrs. Kate D. A Summer in a Cañon. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Wigmore, J. H. The Australian Ballot System. 2d ed., revised and enlarged. Boston: The Boston Book Co.
Wilson—Flather. A Treatise on Steam-Boilers: Their Strength, Construction, and Economical Working. John Wiley & Sons.
Wilson, Marian C. Guy Ormsby: A Romance. Chas. T. Dillingham. $1.50.
Wilson, W. The State: Elements of Historical and Practical Politics. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $2.
Winter, J. S. Buttons, and Bootle's Baby. F. F. Lovell & Co. 30 cents.

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